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THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of January, 1758.

ARTICLE I.

A complete history of England, deduced from the descent of Julius Cæsar, to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748. Containing the transactions of one thousand eight hundred and three years. By T. Smollet, M. D. Volume the fourth, consisting of eighty sheets, given gratis to the purchasers of the three former volumes. Rivington and Fletcher.

OF all the literary enterprises which an author can undertake, that of writing the modern history of England is, we apprehend, the most dangerous and difficult. In a nation divided, as we are, into two inveterate factions, it is impossible to specify any domestic occurrence that deserves a place in history, without running the risque of giving offence to one party, and very often of disobliging both, by a candid investigation of the truth. For this reason, almost every British historian since the reformation has expressly written as a partisan of some particular faction, which he has endeavoured to justify in every article of its conduct; well knowing, that should his work be condemned by one set of people, it would be warmly supported and glorified by the other. Thus we find Clarendon and Ludlow alternately extolled and vilified by the tories and whigs: thus we trace the Jacobite in Carte, and the Calvinist in Rapin. Besides, there are other objections that lie against him who writes the history of his own times. With all his desire of guarding against prejudice, he will hardly be able to represent with candour those scenes in which he himself acted a part; and what author is so inconsiderable or neutral in a community, as not to have interested himself at some time or other in the disputes of his country? He will, moreover, find a professed critic, and in some measure a severe judge, in every reader; as every person was an eye-witness of some of the transactions which he relates: and, this being the case, his errors and mistakes will

VOL. V. Jan. 1758. B be

be the more easily detected ; nor can it be supposed, that any author should be altogether free from mistakes, who must cull his materials from a variety of contradictory evidence. Finally, a writer who exercises his pen on the latter periods of English history, cannot properly avoid entering into dry disquisitions concerning the finances, the money'd corporations, the intrigues of corrupt ministers, the multiplication of statutes, and the venality of p—ts : disquisitions that will naturally tire and disgust a reader of sensibility and imagination. Our author finding himself encumbered by this unpleasing task, exclaims, p. 483, ‘ This, of all others, is the most unfavourable æra for an historian. A reader of sentiment and imagination cannot be entertained or interested by a dry detail of such transactions as admit of no warmth, no colouring, no embellishment ; a detail which serves only to exhibit an inanimated picture of tasteless vice and mean degeneracy.’ These are hardships under which the historians of other countries do not labour. M. de Voltaire, for example, writes the history of an united people, universally attached to their monarch, by the ties of duty and inclination ; a people governed by laws that are not incessantly accumulating into contradiction, confusion and anarchy ; a people whose politics are not eternally fluctuating between faction and caprice ; a people so well regulated by an admirable police, that they break out into no violence, sustain no convulsion, but remain quiet and uniform in their deportment and allegiance, and find themselves happy even under the exactions of an arbitrary government. The modern history of such a people, is simple, easy, and interesting. It is, in effect, a detail of their monarch’s transactions at home and abroad, unentangled in party, unopposed by disaffection ; an agreeable tissue of external conquests, and curious regulations for the benefit of the community. The history of England, for the last thirty years, exhibits scenes of a very different nature ; and some allowance on this score will be made to the author of the work now under our inspection ; a work which we may imagine will be better relished by posterity, than by the present age, in as much as it breathes throughout a spirit of impartiality and moderation, that will, in all probability, be equally disagreeable to those who are personally concerned on both sides of our political disputes. The tories will slight him as a lukewarm friend ; the whigs will brand him as a disguised Jacobite ; For our parts, were we allowed to judge of his principles from this performance, we should conclude, that he is so far a tory, as to love and revere the monarchy and hierarchy ; and so much a whig, as to laugh at the notions of indefeasible right and non-resistance. With respect to the execution of this fourth volume, the reader will judge of it from the quotations we shall give : the style is, in general, equal, and in many places superior to that of the preceding volumes : nevertheless, we cannot help owning, that we perceive in it marks of hurry and oversight, which we hope will

will vanish in the next edition, as well as many errors of the press, owing to the haste in which the sheets have been cast off. These little blemishes, however, we ought to forgive, when we remember the old proverb, *that a gift-horse must not be looked in the mouth.* We believe there are very few instances of such a present to the public; and therefore we hope the proprietor will find his account in his unparalleled generosity. The author had been thought by some readers, too sparing of his own reflections in the preceding volumes; but in this he has avoided that imputation, and perhaps will now be thought too liberal of his own observations, especially by those whom he has not scrupled to stigmatize as pseudo-patriots and understrappers in the art and mystery of ministerial corruption. The reader, we apprehend, will not be displeased with the following introduction.

‘ The constitution of England had now assumed a new aspect. ‘ The maxim of hereditary, indefeasible right, was at length re- ‘ nounced by a free parliament. The power of the crown was ‘ acknowledged to flow from no other fountain than that of a ‘ contract with the people. Allegiance and protection were de- ‘ clared reciprocal ties depending upon each other. The repre- ‘ sentatives of the nation made a regular claim of rights in behalf of ‘ their constituents; and William III. ascended the throne in con- ‘ sequence of an express capitulation with the people. Yet on ‘ this occasion, the zeal of the parliament towards their deliverer ‘ seems to have overshot their attachment to their own liberty and ‘ privileges: or at least they neglected the fairest opportunity that ‘ ever occurred, to retrench those prerogatives of the crown to ‘ which they imputed all the late and former calamities of the ‘ kingdom. Their new monarch retained the old regal power ‘ over parliaments, in its full extent. He was left at liberty to ‘ convoke, adjourn, prorogue, and dissolve them at his pleasure. ‘ He was enabled to influence elections and oppress corporations. ‘ He possessed the right of chusing his own council; of nominating ‘ all the great officers of the state, and of the household, of the ‘ army, the navy, and the church. He reserved the absolute ‘ command of the militia: so that he remained master of all the ‘ instruments and engines of corruption and violence, without any ‘ other restraint than his own moderation, and prudent regard to ‘ the claim of rights and principle of resistance on which the re- ‘ volution was founded. In a word, the settlement was finished ‘ with some precipitation, before the plan had been properly di- ‘ gested and matured; and this will be the case in every establish- ‘ ment formed upon a sudden emergency in the face of opposition. ‘ It was observed, that the king, who was made by the people, ‘ had it in his power to rule without them; to govern *jure divino*, ‘ though he was created *jure humano*; and that, though the ‘ change proceeded from a republican spirit, the settlement was ‘ built upon tory maxims; for, the execution of his government

continued still independent of his commission, while his own person remained sacred and inviolable. The prince of Orange had been invited to England by a coalition of parties, united by a common sense of danger; but this tie was no sooner broken, than they flew asunder, and each resumed its original bias. Their mutual jealousy and rancour revived, and was heated by dispute into intemperate zeal and enthusiasm. Those who at first acted from principles of patriotism, were insensibly warmed into partisans; and king William soon found himself at the head of a faction. As he had been bred a calvinist, and always expressed an abhorrence of spiritual persecution, the presbyterians, and other protestant dissenters, considered him as their peculiar protector, and entered into his interests with the most zealous fervour and assiduity. For the same reasons, the friends of the church became jealous of his proceedings, and employed all their influence, first in opposing his elevation to the throne, and afterwards in thwarting his measures. Their party was espoused by all the friends of the lineal succession; by the roman catholics; by those who were personally attached to the late king, and by such as were disgusted by the conduct and personal deportment of William since his arrival in England. They observed that, contrary to his declaration, he had plainly aspired to the crown; and treated his father-in-law with insolence and rigour; that his army contained a number of foreign papists, almost equal to that of the English roman catholics whom James had employed: that the reports so industriously circulated about the birth of the prince of Wales, the treaty with France for enslaving England, and the murder of the earl of Essex; reports countenanced by the prince of Orange, now appeared to be without foundation: that the Dutch troops remained in London, while the English forces were distributed in remote quarters: that the prince declared the first should be kept about his person, and the latter sent to Ireland: that the two houses, out of complaisance to William, had denied their late sovereign the justice of being heard in his own defence; and, that the Dutch had lately interfered with the trade of London, which was already sensibly diminished. These were the sources of discontent, swelled up by the resentment of some noblemen, and other individuals, disappointed in their hopes of profit and preferment.

As the character of king William has greatly suffered in consequence of the massacre at Glencoe in Scotland, we shall insert the historian's account of that barbarous transaction, that the reader may judge how far it is to be imputed to the cruelty of that monarch.

As the highlanders were not yet totally reduced, the earl of Braidalbin undertook to bring them over, by distributing sums of money among their chiefs; and fifteen thousand pounds were remitted from England for this purpose. The clans being in-

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formed of this remittance, suspected that the earl's design was to appropriate to himself the best part of the money, and when he began to treat with them made such extravagant demands, that he found his scheme impracticable. He was therefore obliged to refund the sum he had received; and he resolved to wreak his vengeance with the first opportunity, on those who had frustrated his intention. He who chiefly thwarted his negotiation was Macdonald of Glencoe; and his opposition arose from a private circumstance, which ought to have had no effect upon a treaty that regarded the public weal. Macdonald had plundered the lands of Braidalbin during the course of hostilities; and this nobleman insisted upon being indemnified for his losses, from the other's share of the money which he was employed to distribute. The Highlander not only refused to acquiesce in these terms, but, by his influence among the clans, defeated the whole scheme, and the earl in revenge devoted him to destruction. King William had by proclamation offered an indemnity to all those who had been in arms against him, provided they would submit and take the oaths by a certain day; and this was prolonged to the end of the present year, with a denunciation of military execution against those who should hold out after the end of December. Macdonald, intimidated by this declaration, repaired on the very last day of the month to Fort-William, and desired that the oaths might be tendered to him by colonel Hill governor of that fortress. As this officer was not vested with the power of a civil magistrate, he refused to administer them; and Macdonald set out immediately for Inverary, the county-town of Argyle. Though the ground was covered with snow, and the weather intensely cold, he travelled with such diligence, that the term prescribed by the proclamation was but one day elapsed when he reached the place, and addressed himself to Sir Colin Campbell sheriff of the county, who, in consideration of his disappointment at Fort-William, was prevailed upon to administer the oaths to him and his adherents. Then they returned to their own habitations in the valley of Glenoee, in full confidence of being protected by the government, to which they had so solemnly submitted.

Braidalbin had represented Macdonald at court as an incorrigible rebel, and a ruffian inured to bloodshed and rapine, who would never be obedient to the laws of his country, nor live peaceably under any sovereign. He observed that he had paid no regard to the proclamation; and proposed that the government should sacrifice him to the quiet of the kingdom, in extirpating him, with his family and dependents, by military execution. His advice was supported by the suggestions of the other Scottish ministers; and the king, whose chief virtue was not humanity, signed a warrant for the destruction of those unhappy people, though it does not appear that he knew of Macdonald's

submission.

‘ submission. An order for this barbarous execution, signed and
‘ counter-signed by his majesty’s own hand, being transmitted to
‘ the master of Stair, secretary for Scotland, he sent particular di-
‘ rections to Levingstone, who commanded the troops in that
‘ kingdom, to put the inhabitants of Glencoe to the sword,
‘ charging him to take no prisoners, that the scene might be more
‘ terrible. In the month of February captain Campbell of Glen-
‘ lyon, by virtue of an order from major Duncanson, marched
‘ into the valley of Glencoe, with a company of soldiers belonging
‘ to Argyle’s Highland regiment, on pretence of levying the ar-
‘ rears of the land-tax and hearth-money. When Macdonald de-
‘ manded whether they came as friends or enemies, he answered
‘ as friends, and promised upon his honour that neither he nor
‘ his people should sustain the least injury. In consequence of
‘ this declaration, he and his men were received with the most
‘ cordial hospitality, and lived fifteen days with the men of the
‘ valley, in all the appearance of the most unreserved friendship.
‘ At length the fatal period approached. Macdonald and Camp-
‘ bell having passed the day together, parted about seven in the
‘ evening, with mutual professions of the warmest affection. The
‘ younger Macdonald, perceiving the guards doubled, began to
‘ suspect some treachery, and communicated his suspicion to his
‘ brother; but neither he nor the father would harbour the least
‘ doubt of Campbell’s sincerity: nevertheless, the two young men
‘ went forth privately to make further observations. They over-
‘ heard the common soldiers say they liked not the work; that
‘ though they would have willingly fought the Macdonalds of the
‘ Glen fairly in the field, they held it base to murder them in cool
‘ blood, but that their officers were answerable for the treachery.
‘ When the youths hastened back to apprise their father of the im-
‘ pending danger, they saw the house already surrounded; they
‘ heard the discharge of muskets, the shrieks of women and chil-
‘ dren, and, being destitute of arms, secured their own lives by
‘ immediate flight. The savage ministers of vengeance had en-
‘ tered the old man’s chamber, and shot him through the head.
‘ He fell down dead in the arms of his wife, who died next day,
‘ distracted by the horror of her husband’s fate. The laird of
‘ Auchintrincken, Macdonald’s guest, who had three months be-
‘ fore this period submitted to the government, and at this very
‘ time had a protection in his pocket, was put to death without
‘ question. A boy of eight years, who fell at Campbell’s feet,
‘ imploring mercy, and offering to serve him for life, was stabbed
‘ to the heart by one Drummond, a subaltern officer. Eight and
‘ thirty persons suffered in this manner, the greater part of whom
‘ were surprised in their beds, and hurried into eternity before
‘ they had time to implore the divine mercy. The design was to
‘ butcher all the males under seventy that lived in the valley,
‘ the number of whom amounted to two hundred: but some of
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the detachments did not arrive soon enough to secure the passes ; so that one hundred and sixty escaped. Campbell, having perpetrated this brutal massacre, ordered all the houses to be burned, made a prey of all the cattle and effects that were found in the valley, and left the helpless women and children, whose fathers and husbands he had murdered, naked and forlorn, without covering, food, or shelter, in the midst of the snow that covered the whole face of the country, at the distance of six long miles from any inhabited place. Distracted with grief and horror, surrounded with the shades of night, shivering with cold, and appalled with the apprehension of immediate death from the swords of those who had sacrificed their friends and kinsmen, they could not endure such a complication of calamities, but generally perished in the waste before they could receive the least comfort or assistance. This barbarous massacre, performed under the sanction of king William's authority, though it answered the immediate purpose of the court, by striking terror into the hearts of the Jacobite Highlanders, excited the horror of all those who had not renounced every sentiment of humanity, and produced such an aversion to the government, as all the arts of a ministry could never totally surmount. A detail of the particulars was published at Paris with many exaggerations ; and the Jacobites did not fail to expatiate upon every circumstance, in domestic libels and private conversation. The king, alarmed at the outcry which was raised upon this occasion, ordered an inquiry to be set on foot, and dismissed the master of Stair from his employment of secretary : he likewise pretended that he had subscribed the order amidst a heap of other papers, without knowing the purport of it ; but, as he did not severely punish those who had made his authority subservient to their own cruel revenge, the imputation stuck fast to his character ; and the Highlanders, though terrified into silence and submission, were inspired with the most implacable resentment against his person and administration.

His concise manner of treating foreign affairs, appears in the following quotation relating to the famous treaty of partition, in which the dominions of Spain were parcelled out by king William and Lewis XIV. of France.

When the new partition-treaty was communicated by the ministers of the contracting parties to the other powers of Europe, it generally met with a very unfavourable construction. Saxony and the northern crowns were still embroiled with their own quarrels, consequently could not give much attention to such a remote transaction. The princes of Germany appeared cautious and dilatory in their answers, unwilling to be concerned in any plan that might excite the resentment of the house of Austria. The elector of Brandenburg, in particular, had set his heart upon the regal dignity, which he hoped to obtain from the

' favour and authority of the emperor. The Italian states were
 ' averse to the partition-treaty, from their apprehension of seeing
 ' France in possession of Naples, and other districts of their coun-
 ' try. The duke of Savoy affected a mysterious neutrality, in
 ' hope of being able to barter his consent for some considerable
 ' advantage. The Swiss cantons declined acceding as guarantees.
 ' The emperor expressed his astonishment that any disposition
 ' should be made of the Spanish monarchy, without the consent
 ' of the present possessor, and the states of the kingdom. He ob-
 ' served, that neither justice or decorum could warrant the con-
 ' tracting powers to compel him, who was the rightful heir, to
 ' accept a part of his inheritance within three months, under pe-
 ' nalty of forfeiting even that share to a third person not yet
 ' named; and he declared, that he could take no final resolution,
 ' until he should know the sentiments of his catholic majesty, on
 ' an affair in which their mutual interest was so nearly concerned.
 ' Leopold was actually engaged in a negotiation with the king of
 ' Spain, who signed a will in favour of his second son Charles; yet
 ' he took no measures to support the disposition, either by sending
 ' the archduke with a sufficient force into Spain, or by detaching
 ' troops into Italy.

' The people of Spain were exasperated at the insolence of the
 ' three foreign powers who pretended to parcel out their domi-
 ' nions. Their pride took the alarm, at the prospect of their
 ' monarchy's being dismembered; and the grandees repined at
 ' the thought of losing so many lucrative governments, which
 ' they now enjoyed. The king's life became every day more and
 ' more precarious, from frequent returns of his disorder. The
 ' ministry was weak and divided, the nobility factious, and the
 ' people discontented. The hearts of the nation had been alie-
 ' nated from the house of Austria, by the insolent carriage and
 ' rapacious disposition of the queen Mariana. The French had
 ' gained over to their interests the cardinal Portocarrero, the mar-
 ' quis de Monterey, with many other noblemen and persons of
 ' distinction. These perceiving the sentiments of the people,
 ' employed their emissaries to raise a general cry, that France
 ' alone could maintain the succession intire; that the house of
 ' Austria was feeble and exhausted, and any prince of that line
 ' must owe his chief support to detestable heretics. Portocarrero
 ' tampered with the weakness of his sovereign: he repeated and
 ' exaggerated all these suggestions: he advised him to consult his
 ' holiness pope Innocent XII, on this momentous point of regu-
 ' lating the succession. That pontiff, who was a creature of
 ' France, having taken the advice of a college of cardinals, de-
 ' termined, that the renunciation of Maria Theresa was invalid
 ' and null, as being founded upon compulsion, and contrary to
 ' the fundamental laws of the Spanish monarchy. He therefore
 ' exhorted king Charles to contribute to the propagation of the
 ' faith,

‘ faith, and the repose of Christendom, by making a new will in
‘ favour of a grandson of the French monarch. This admonition
‘ was seconded by the remonstrances of Portocarrero; and the
‘ weak prince complied with the proposal. In the mean time,
‘ the king of France seemed to act heartily, as a principal in the
‘ treaty of partition. His ministers at foreign courts co-operated
‘ with those of the maritime powers, in soliciting the accession of
‘ the different powers in Europe. When count Zinzendorf, the
‘ imperial ambassador at Paris, presented a memorial, desiring to
‘ know what part France would act, should the king of Spain
‘ voluntarily place a grandson of Lewis upon the throne, the mar-
‘ quis de Torcy answered in writing, that his most christian majesty
‘ would by no means listen to such a proposal: nay, when the
‘ emperor’s minister gave them to understand that his master was
‘ ready to begin a separate negotiation with the court of Versailles
‘ touching the Spanish succession, Lewis declared he could not
‘ treat on that subject without the concurrence of his allies.’

We shall next insert his character of king William, which has
been so differently canvassed between the adoration of the whigs
and the abhorrence of the tories.

‘ William III. was in his person of the middle stature, a thin
‘ body, and delicate constitution, subject to an asthma and conti-
‘ nual cough from his infancy. He had an aquiline nose, spark-
‘ ling eyes, a large forehead, and a grave solemn aspect. He was
‘ very sparing of speech: his conversation was dry, and his man-
‘ ner disgusting, except in battle, when his deportment was free,
‘ spirited, and animating. In courage, fortitude, and equanimity,
‘ he rivalled the most eminent warriors of antiquity; and his na-
‘ tural sagacity made amends for the defects in his education,
‘ which had not been properly superintended. He was religious,
‘ temperate, generally just and sincere, a stranger to violent trans-
‘ ports of passion, and might have passed for one of the best
‘ princes of the age in which he lived, had he never ascended the
‘ throne of Great-Britain. But the distinguishing criterion of his
‘ character was ambition. To this he sacrificed the punctilios of
‘ honour and decorum, in deposing his own father-in-law and
‘ uncle; and this he gratified at the expence of the nation that
‘ raised him to sovereign authority. He aspired to the honour of
‘ acting as umpire in all the contests of Europe; and the second
‘ object of his attention was, the prosperity of that country to
‘ which he owed his birth and extraction. Whether he really
‘ thought the interests of the continent and Great-Britain were
‘ inseparable, or sought only to drag England into the confederacy
‘ as a convenient ally, certain it is, he involved these kingdoms in
‘ foreign connexions, which, in all probability, will be productive
‘ of their ruin. In order to establish this favourite point, he
‘ scrupled not to employ all the engines of corruption, by which
‘ the morals of the nation were totally debauched. He procured

' a parliamentary sanction for a standing army, which now seems
 ' to be interwoven in the constitution. He introduced the per-
 ' nicious practice of borrowing upon remote funds; an expedient
 ' that necessarily hatched a brood of usurers, brokers, and stock-
 ' jobbers, to prey upon the vitals of their country. He intailed
 ' upon the nation a growing debt, and a system of politics big
 ' with misery, despair, and destruction. To sum up his charac-
 ' ter in a few words: William was a fatalist in religion, indefa-
 ' tigable in war, enterprising in politics, dead to all the warm
 ' and generous emotions of the human heart, a cold relation, an
 ' indifferent husband, a disagreeable man, an ungracious prince,
 ' and an imperious sovereign.'

That our author is not partial in favour of the tories, will be
 owned by every person who reads the following sections relating
 to the disgrace of the great duke of Marlborough: ' This No-
 ' bleman arrived in England towards the latter end of December.
 ' He conferred about half an hour in private with the queen, and
 ' next morning assisted at a committee of the privy-council. Her
 ' majesty gave him to understand, that he needed not expect the
 ' thanks of the parliament as formerly; and told him she hoped
 ' he would live well with her ministers. He expressed no re-
 ' sentment at the alterations which had been made; but resolved
 ' to acquiesce in the queen's pleasure, and retain the command
 ' of the army on her own terms. On the second day of January
 ' the queen sent a message to both houses, intimating, that there
 ' had been an action in Spain to the disadvantage of king Charles:
 ' that the damage having fallen particularly on the English forces,
 ' she had given directions for sending and procuring troops to
 ' repair the loss, and hoped the parliament would approve her
 ' conduct. Both houses seized this opportunity of venting their
 ' spleen against the old ministry. The history of England is dis-
 ' graced by the violent conduct of two turbulent factions, that in
 ' their turn engrossed the administration and the legislative power.
 ' The parliamentary strain was quite altered. One can hardly
 ' conceive how resolutions so widely different could be taken on
 ' the same subject, with any shadow of reason and decorum.
 ' Marlborough, who but a few months before had been so highly
 ' extolled and caressed by the representatives of the people, was
 ' now become the object of parliamentary hatred and censure,
 ' though no sensible alteration had happened in his conduct or
 ' success. That hero, who had retrieved the glory of the British
 ' arms, won so many battles, subdued such a number of towns
 ' and districts, humbled the pride, and checked the ambition of
 ' France, secured the liberty of Europe; and, as it were, chained
 ' victory to his chariot wheels; was in a few weeks dwindled into
 ' an object of contempt and derision. He was ridiculed in pub-
 ' lic libels, and reviled in private conversation. Instances were

every where repeated of his fraud, avarice, and extortion; his insolence, cruelty, ambition, and misconduct: even his courage was called in question; and this consummate general was represented as the lowest of mankind. So unstable is the popularity of every character that fluctuates between two opposite tides of faction.

The lords in their answer to the queen's message, declared, that as the misfortune in Spain might have been occasioned by some preceding mismanagement, they would use their utmost endeavours to discover it, so as to prevent the like for the future. They set on foot an inquiry concerning the affairs of Spain; and the earl of Peterborough being examined before the committee, imputed all the miscarriages in the course of that war to the earl of Galway and general Stanhope. Notwithstanding the defence of Galway, which was clear and convincing, the house resolved, That the earl of Peterborough had given a faithful and honourable account of the councils of war in Valencia: That the earl of Galway, the lord Tyrawley, and general Stanhope, in advising an offensive war, had been the unhappy occasion of the battle at Almanza, the source of our misfortunes in Spain, and one great cause of the disappointment from the expedition to Toulon, concerted with her majesty. They voted, That the prosecution of an offensive war in Spain was approved and directed by the ministers, who were therefore justly blameable, as having contributed to all our misfortunes in Spain, and to the disappointment of the expedition against Toulon: that the earl of Peterborough, during his command in Spain, had performed many great and eminent services; and, if his opinion had been followed, it might have prevented the misfortunes that ensued. Then the duke of Buckingham moved, That the thanks of the house should be given to the earl for his remarkable and eminent services: and these he actually received from the mouth of the lord-keeper Harcourt, who took this opportunity to drop some oblique reflections upon the mercenary disposition of the duke of Marlborough. The house proceeding in the inquiry, passed another vote, importing, That the late ministry had been negligent in managing the Spanish war, to the great prejudice of the nation. Finding that the Portuguese troops were posted on the right of the English at the battle of Almanza, they resolved, That the earl of Galway, in yielding this point, had acted contrary to the honour of the imperial crown of Great Britain. These resolutions they included in an address to the queen, who had been present during the debates, which were extremely violent; and to every separate vote was attached a severe protest. These were not the proceedings of candour and national justice, but the ebullitions of party zeal and rancorous animosity.

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One cannot read the character of queen Anne without emotion. The queen continued to doze in a lethargic insensibility, with very short intervals, till the first day of August in the morning, when she expired, in the fiftieth year of her age, and in the thirteenth of her reign. Anne Stuart, queen of Great Britain, was in her person of the middle size, well proportioned. Her hair was of a dark brown colour, her complexion ruddy, her features were regular, her countenance was rather round than oval, and her aspect more comely than majestic. Her voice was clear and melodious, and her presence engaging. Her capacity was naturally good, but not much cultivated by learning; nor did she exhibit any marks of extraordinary genius, or personal ambition. She was certainly deficient in that vigour of mind by which a prince ought to preserve his independence, and avoid the snares and fetters of sycophants and favourites: but whatever her weakness in this particular might have been, the virtues of her heart were never called in question. She was a pattern of conjugal affection and fidelity, a tender mother, a warm friend, an indulgent mistress, a munificent patron, a mild and merciful prince, during whose reign no subject's blood was shed for treason. She was zealously attached to the church of England from conviction rather than from prepossession, unaffectedly pious, just, charitable, and compassionate. She felt a mother's fondness for her people, by whom she was universally beloved with a warmth of affection which even the prejudice of party could not abate. In a word, if she was not the greatest, she was certainly one of the best and most unblemished sovereigns that ever sat upon the throne of England; and well deserved the expressive, though simple epithet, of "the good queen Anne."

The state of parties in England, at the accession of George I. is thus described: 'It may be necessary to remind the reader of the state of party at this important juncture. The Jacobites had been fed with hopes of seeing the succession altered by the earl of Oxford. These hopes he had conveyed to them in a distant, undeterminate, and mysterious manner, without any other view than that of preventing them from taking violent measures to embarrass his administration. At least, if he actually entertained at one time any other design, he had, long before his disgrace, laid it wholly aside, probably from an apprehension of the danger with which it must have been attended; and seemed bent upon making a merit of his zeal for the house of Hanover: but his conduct was so equivocal and unsteady, that he ruined himself in the opinion of one party, without acquiring the confidence of the other. The friends of the pretender derived fresh hopes from the ministry of Bolingbroke. Though he had never explained himself on this subject, he was supposed to favour the heir of blood, and known to be an im-

placable

‘ placable enemy to the whigs, who were the most zealous advocates for the protestant succession. They promised themselves much from his affection, but more from his resentment; and they believed the majority of the tories would join them on the same maxims. All Bolingbroke’s schemes of power were defeated by the promotion of the duke of Shrewsbury to the office of treasurer; and all his hopes blasted by the death of the queen, on whose personal favour he depended. The resolute behaviour of the dukes of Somerset and Argyle, together with the diligence and activity of a council in which the whig interest had gained the ascendancy, completed the confusion of the tories, who found themselves without a head, divided, distracted, and irresolute. Upon recollection, they saw nothing so eligible as silence and submission to those measures which they could not oppose with any prospect of success. They had no other objection to the succession in the house of Hanover, but the fear of seeing the whig faction once more predominant: yet they were not without hope that their new sovereign, who was reputed a prince of sagacity and experience, would cultivate and conciliate the affection of the tories, who were the landholders and proprietors of the kingdom, rather than declare himself the head of a faction which leaned for support on those who were enemies to the church and monarchy, on the bank and the monied-interest, raised upon usury and maintained by corruption. In a word, the whigs were elated and overbearing; the tories abashed and humble; the jacobites eager, impatient, and alarmed at a juncture which with respect to them was truly critical.’

He has severely animadverted on the plan of politicks pursued by the ministry of George I. as a system by which the welfare of Great-Britain was sacrificed to the interests of Germany; and he has branded the administration of Sir Robert Walpole, as a machine actuated by corruption and big with national ruin.

The character of king George I. is delineated in these words: ‘ George I. was plain and simple in his person and address; grave and composed in his deportment, though easy, familiar, and facetious in his hours of relaxation. Before he ascended the throne of Great-Britain, he had acquired the character of a circumspect general, a just and merciful prince, and a wise politician, who perfectly understood, and steadily pursued his own interest. With these qualities, it cannot be doubted but that he came to England extremely well disposed to govern his new subjects according to the maxims of the British constitution, and the genius of the people; and if ever he seemed to deviate from these principles, we may take it for granted, that he was misled by the venal suggestions of a ministry whose power and influence were founded on corruption.’

Then he proceeds to characterize the ministry, and paint the situation of affairs when his present majesty ascended the throne. At

At the accession of George II. the nation had great reason to wish for an alteration of measures. The public debt, notwithstanding the boasted œconomy and management of the ministers; notwithstanding the sinking fund, which had been extolled as a growing treasure sacred to the discharge of national incumbrances, was now increased to fifty millions two hundred sixty-one thousand two hundred and six pounds, nineteen shillings, eight pence three farthings. The kingdom was bewildered in a labyrinth of treaties and conventions, by which it stood engaged in pecuniary subsidies to many powers upon the continent, with whom its real interests could never be connected. The wealth of the nation had been lavished upon these foreign connexions; upon unnecessary wars and fruitless expeditions. Dangerous incroachment had been made upon the constitution by the repeal of the act for triennial parliaments; by frequent suspensions of the habeas corpus act upon frivolous occasions; by repealing clauses in the act of settlement; by votes of credit; by habituating the people to a standing army; and above all, by establishing a system of corruption, which at all times would secure a majority in parliament. The nature of prerogative, by which the liberties of the nation had formerly been so often endangered, was now so well understood, and so securely restrained, that it could no longer be used for the same oppressive purposes; besides, an avowed extension of the prerogative required more ability, courage, and resolution, than the present ministry could exert. They understood their own strength, and had recourse to a more safe and effectual expedient. The vice, luxury, and prostitution of the age, the almost total extinction of sentiment, honour, and public spirit, had prepared the minds of men for slavery and corruption. The means were in the hands of the ministry: the public treasure was at their devotion: they multiplied places and pensions to increase the number of their dependents: they squandered away the money of the nation without taste, discernment, decency, or remorse: they enlisted an army of the most abandoned emissaries, whom they employed to vindicate the worst measures, in the face of truth, common sense, and common honesty; and they did not fail to stigmatize as jacobites and enemies to the government, all those who presumed to question the merit of their administration.

The supreme direction of affairs was not yet engrossed by a single minister. Lord Townshend had the reputation of conducting the external transactions relating to treaties and negotiations. He is said to have understood that province, though he did not always follow the dictates of his own understanding. He possessed an extensive fund of knowledge; and was well acquainted with the functions of his office. The duke of N. his colleague, was not remarkable for any of these qualifications;

cations; he owed his promotion to his uncommon zeal for the illustrious house of Hanover, and to the strength of his interest in parliament, rather than to his judgment, precision, or any other intellectual merit. Lord C. who may be counted an auxiliary, though not immediately concerned in the administration, had distinguished himself in the character of envoy at several courts in Europe. He had attained an intimate knowledge of all the different interests and connexions subsisting among the powers of the continent; and he infinitely surpassed all the ministers in learning and capacity. He was, indeed, the only man of genius employed under this government. He spoke with ease and propriety; his conceptions were just and lively; his inferences bold; his councils vigorous and warm. Yet he depreciated his talents by acting in a subordinate character to those whom he despised; and seemed to look upon the pernicious measures of a bad ministry with silent contempt, rather than with avowed detestation. The interior government of Great-Britain was chiefly managed by Sir Robert W. a man of extraordinary talents, who had from low beginnings raised himself to the head of the treasury. Having obtained a seat in the lower house, he declared himself one of the most forward partisans of the whig faction. He was endued with a species of eloquence, which though neither nervous nor elegant, flowed with great facility, and was so plausible on all subjects, that even when he misrepresented the truth, whether from ignorance or design, he seldom failed to persuade that part of his audience for whose hearing his harangue was chiefly intended. He was well acquainted with the nature of the public funds, and understood the whole mystery of stock-jobbing. This knowledge produced a connexion between him and the money corporations, which served to enhance his importance. He perceived the bulk of mankind were actuated by a sordid thirst of lucre; had sagacity enough to convert the degeneracy of the times to his own advantage; and on this, and this alone, he founded the whole superstructure of his subsequent administration. In the late reign he had, by dint of speaking decisively to every question, by boldly impeaching the conduct of the tory ministers, by his activity in elections, and engaging as a projector in the schemes of the monied-interest, become a leading member in the house of commons. By his sufferings under the tory parliament, he obtained the rank of a martyr to his party: his interest, his reputation, and his presumption daily increased: he opposed Sunderland as his rival in power, and headed a dangerous defection from the ministry, which evinced the greatness of his influence and authority. He had the glory of being principally concerned in effecting a reconciliation between the late king and the prince of Wales: then he was reassociated in the administration with additional credit; and, from the deaths of the earls

of

of Sunderland and Stanhope, he had been making long strides
 towards the office of prime-minister. He knew the maxims he
 had adopted would subject him to the hatred, the ridicule, and
 reproach of some individuals, who had not yet resigned all sentiments of patriotism, nor all views of opposition: but the number of these was inconsiderable when compared to that which constituted the body of the community; and he would not suffer the consideration of such antagonists to come in competition with his schemes of power, affluence, and authority. Nevertheless, low as he had humbled antiministerial association, it required all his artifice to elude, all his patience and natural phlegm to bear, the powerful arguments that were urged, and the keen satire that was exercised against his measures and management, by a few members in the opposition. Sir William Wyndham possessed all the energy of elocution; Mr. Shippen was calm, intrepid, shrewd, and sarcastic; Mr. Hungerford sly, insinuating, and ironical. Mr. W. P. inherited from nature a good understanding, which he had studiously cultivated. He was one of the most learned members in the house of commons, extremely well qualified to judge of literary productions; well read in history and politics; deeply skilled in the British constitution, the detail of government, and the nature of the finances: he spoke with freedom, fluency, and uncommon warmth of declamation, which was said to be the effect of personal animosity to Sir R. W. with whom he had been formerly connected.

With the same boldness and warmth of colouring, he has touched many other characters of persons still alive; and executed every part of his design with a freedom and resolution that will appear very extraordinary to those who are unacquainted with the liberties of a British subject. The rise and progress of the last rebellion, he has traced and explained with equal accuracy and conciseness; though he has been led into some few trivial mistakes which an hypercritic will not fail to magnify; for example, he says, that after the battle of Culloden, the lady Mackintosh was conveyed prisoner to the castle of Edinburgh, after her house was plundered: whereas, she was imprisoned at Inverness, and her house was not plundered. He may be convicted of other errors of the same importance, and no doubt will be censured accordingly, by those who are his professed enemies and calumniators.

Having briefly narrated all the transactions of the late war, by sea and land, in different parts of the world, he winds up his plan with the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and concludes the work in these words. 'We have already observed, that after the troubles of the empire began, the war was no longer maintained on British principles. It became a continental contest, and was prosecuted on the side of the allies, without conduct, spirit, or unanimity. In the Netherlands they were outnumbered and outwitted by the enemy. They never hazarded a battle without sustaining a defeat.

• defeat. Their vast armies, paid by Great-Britain, lay inactive,
 • and beheld one fortress reduced after another, until the whole
 • country was subdued; and as their generals fought, their ple-
 • nipotentiaries negotiated. At a time, when their affairs began
 • to wear the most promising aspect; when the arrival of the
 • Russian auxiliaries would have secured an undoubted superiority
 • in the field; when the British fleets had trampled on the naval
 • power of France and Spain, intercepted their supplies of trea-
 • sure, and cut off all their resources of commerce; the British mi-
 • nisters seemed to treat, without the least regard to the honour
 • and advantage of their country. They left her most valuable
 • and necessary rights of trade unowned and undecided: they sub-
 • scribed to the insolent demand of sending the nobles of the realm
 • to grace the court and adorn the triumphs of her enemy: and
 • they tamely gave up their conquests in North-America, of more
 • consequence to her traffic than all the other dominions for which
 • the powers at war contended: they gave up the important isle
 • of Cape-Breton, in exchange for a petty factory in the East-
 • Indies, belonging to a private company, whose existence has
 • been deemed prejudicial to the commonwealth. What then
 • were the fruits which Britain reaped from this long and desperate
 • war? A dreadful expence of blood and treasure, disgrace upon
 • disgrace, an additional load of grievous impositions, and the na-
 • tional debt accumulated to the enormous sum of eighty millions
 • sterling.

We have said enough to express our approbation of this per-
 formance: a more particular eulogium on the work, might be as-
 cribed to our partiality for a friend and colleague.

ART. II. *The culture of silk: or, an essay on its rational practice and
 improvement. In four parts. 1. On the raising and planting of
 Mulberry trees. 2. On hatching and rearing the Silk-worms. 3. On
 obtaining their silk and breed. 4. On reeling their silk-pods. For
 the use of the American colonies. By the Rev. Samuel Pulletin, M. A.*
 8vo. Pr. 5s. Millar.

THIS treatise, dedicated to his royal highness the prince of
 Wales, is written with the laudable intention of promoting
 the benefit of society, by a valuable manufacture, which may bring
 wealth to the community, and usefully employ a great number of
 poor people. It is, however, much better calculated for our
 southern colonies in America, than for the climate of this island,
 which is so variable and unfavourable to the propagation of silk-
 worms. Indeed, these insects are so tender and delicate, and re-
 quire such exquisite care and unwearied attendance, that we are
 persuaded the perusal of this treatise, will be sufficient to deter-

most people from engaging in the culture of silk within the European dominions of his Britannic majesty.

When we consider the infinite number of minute circumstances to which the most painful attention must be paid by those who breed silk-worms, and the small profit accruing from such labour, we are surprised that any person should have taken the trouble to go through all the particulars of the progress. Were the culture of silk as difficult and precarious in those countries, where it is produced, as it is in this kingdom, nothing but extreme poverty, or an immoderate thirst after natural knowledge, would induce any man to engage in the undertaking. After all the care that is taken in hatching and rearing the silk-worms; the great loss unavoidably sustained by death and accident, both in regard to the worm and the pod, and the deduction of those that are kept for breed; what is the breeder's profit? 'Three thousand three hundred silk pods with the chrysalis in them, weigh about twelve pounds, and may be worth about eight shillings, according as the silk season has proved favourable, or not; those twelve pounds will make about sixteen ounces of reel'd silk, which is worth near sixteen shillings, besides eight ounces of loss.'—What an infinite number must be required to maintain a family? and how must a family be employed to give due attendance to every individual of that number!

Mr. Pullein seems to be intimately acquainted with his subject, both in theory and practice. His rules are plain and practicable; his language is concise and perspicuous. He writes like a philosopher and a patriot, and enters into the *minutiae* of the art with peculiar eagerness and satisfaction. Affixed to the work, are prints of the implements necessary for this operation. In the first part of the book, he explains the culture of mulberry trees, upon the leaves of which the silk-worm feeds: then he exhibits a brief view of this insect's life, which we shall transcribe for the entertainment of the reader.

'CHAP. I. *A general brief view of the silk-worm's life, with the choice of place proper for rearing them in.*

'The silk-worm proceeds from an egg laid in summer; it is yellow when first laid, but in three or four days turns of a blueish colour; its size is about that of a grain of mustard; it is preserved till the following spring, and is then hatch'd either by the natural warmth of the weather, or by artificial heat.

'The worm that proceeds from this egg is about a quarter of an inch long, as thick as a small pin, and of a black colour; three or four days warmth generally hatches it. This worm, from so small a size, doth, in the space of about six weeks, grow to be above two inches and half long, and an inch and half round, after which it desists from feeding, and begins to form its silk-ball.

'It

‘ It begins the outside of its work first, and keeping still in the inside, forms an hollow ball of silk round itself, which it generally finishes in three or four days from the time of its beginning to spin.

‘ It lies inclosed in this ball a certain space of time, in hot climates fifteen days, in cold ones a month, and so proportionably, at the end of which it is transform’d into a very large moth, and works its way out by an hole which it makes through the ball.

‘ The male and female moths then couple, and when they are separated, the female lays her eggs to the number of three or four hundred, and in a few days afterward both males and females die.

‘ Their eggs are kept safe till the ensuing spring, at which season they are again hatch’d into worms. This is the general sketch of a silkworm’s life when it is preserved to breed; for millions of silk-balls are wound off to manufacture before the moths spoil them by boring their way out.’

Having directed the choice of the eggs, and explained the method of hatching; he directs us how to prepare the stands and shelves on which the silk-worms are to be fed, and on which they afterwards spin their silk; then he describes the four sicknesses or moultings which the silk-worm undergoes. The curious reader will be pleased with an account of these periodical disorders.

‘ The silk-worm is subject to four sicknesses, from each of which it recovers by what I shall hereafter call moulting, or throwing off its skin; and the times in which this happens are carefully to be observed, together with the different appearance, which the worm makes both at the time of its sickening, and after it has moulted; because these are periods which greatly regulate your conduct in managing your broods.

‘ The times of their sickness are so variously set down by many different authors, that scarce any fixed times can be taken from their accounts, especially for the first sickness, some fixing it to the seventh or eighth day after hatching, and others not till the twelfth: but Malpighius, in his accurate anatomy of the silk-worm, says that those worms which he hatched in May were eleven days old before they fell into their first sickness; those hatched in July ten days, and those hatched in August not quite nine: yet as he observes these times vary according to the weather and other circumstances. Some French authors fix the seventh or eighth day for the first sickness, in France, and I found it to be about the same time in England.

‘ That you may not be at a loss for the time of their first sickness, upon which the other three depend, I will be somewhat more particular concerning its approach, and concerning the appearances which the silk-worm has during its first age; because from its smallness, at this time, they might escape a common observer.

‘ The silk-worm when it comes out of the egg appears quite black, this in two or three days changes to a light mouse co-

' lous: upon the approach of its first sickness, the head begins to
 ' swell so as to be apparently larger than it was, in proportion to
 ' the body; it appears also more pointed towards the mouth than
 ' it did before, and upon their actually falling into the height
 ' of their sickness they leave off eating, and remain quite mo-
 ' tionless, with their heads swelled, and raised, generally, above
 ' their bodies; and their colour is now a light yellowish brown, in
 ' which the rings of their body may be seen, if you view them closely.

' They continue thus, without feeding, about three days; then
 ' the swelling of their heads begins to fall, and they cast their old
 ' skins, which tho' on account of their smallness you may not
 ' readily observe, yet is as compleatly cast now as at their last
 ' moulting, of which the magnifying glass will fully inform any
 ' one. You will know that they are quite recovered by the dif-
 ' ferent appearance which they immediately make after moulting,
 ' for they now appear of a very light grey colour about their
 ' necks, and the rest of their bodies a dark grey; their heads are
 ' no longer swelled, nor their nose sharp; their bodies also appear
 ' slender, and not so stiff and shortened as when they lay in their
 ' sickness; and in half an hour's time they fall eagerly on their food.

' In the above description observe, that the swelling of their
 ' heads is the obvious sign of their approaching disorder; their
 ' motionless situation with their heads erected shews their con-
 ' tinuance in the height of it; and the light colour about their
 ' necks, their motion, and beginning to eat, shews their recovery.

' Though they fall into their sickness by some degrees, yet their
 ' recovery is almost instantaneous; for from the time that they be-
 ' gin to throw off their skins till it is quite off, is oft only about two
 ' or three minutes space. They cast it by fixing their tail to the leafy
 ' fibres, and then moving their body forward, after which they seem
 ' to rest themselves for a short time, and then begin to eat.

' Having fed about three days, they begin to fall into their se-
 ' cond sickness with much the same appearances as the first, and last-
 ' ing the same time, viz. three days, therefore it need not be particu-
 ' larly described; only observe that though they are said to be well
 ' and feed three days, and to fast and lie motionless for three days
 ' more, yet this is not to be taken strictly, because they eat a little
 ' even after they begin to sicken, and therefore are something
 ' longer in an eating condition, than in a fasting inactive one:
 ' you must make this same allowance for what shall be said of
 ' their third and fourth sickness; observe also that the warmer
 ' the climate is, so much the shorter is the time of their continu-
 ' ing sick.

' Having recovered from their second sickness, they continue in
 ' health for about three days, and then their heads swell as before,
 ' and they begin to fall into their third sickness; their bodies grow
 ' somewhat glossy, of a pale yellowish colour, and somewhat
 ' lessened in length; they remain motionless with their heads
 ' rais'd, which now also appear sharp toward the mouth, as in
 ' their

‘ their former sicknesses. After three days, the swelling of the
‘ head falls, and sometimes they suddenly grow as it were speckled
‘ with dark streaks, which colour proceeds from their old skin
‘ then beginning to separate; they then continue stretched out
‘ at their length, for about two hours, after which they begin to
‘ strip off their old skin from the head downward towards the tail,
‘ which is always the manner in which it is done, and from the
‘ time in which they begin to strip it till it is quite off, there is
‘ but about one minute's space: they appear now of one uniform
‘ colour, which somewhat resembles that which the small smooth
‘ branches of an ash-tree have: the new skin at first appears
‘ something wrinkled, but as they begin to eat it stretches and
‘ grows smooth.

‘ After their recovery from the third sickness, they continue in
‘ health about three days, as before, and then their fourth sick-
‘ ness begins with the same appearance as the third, and there-
‘ fore need not be particularly described, being much of the same
‘ duration, and, as the worm is now grown large, easily observed;
‘ this is their last sickness: after their recovery from it they ap-
‘ pear of the same colour as after the third; two black comma's,
‘ in this situation (‘) appear on their back, a little below their
‘ first ring, which before this moult were not so manifest: after
‘ this they continue eating, and in perfect health for about ten
‘ days, that is till their time of being ready to spin.’

The three following chapters turn upon the art of feeding and managing the silk-worm before it begins to spin, and are circumstantial even to prolixity.

The third part relates to the spinning of the silk, and is extremely curious.

‘ The silkworm can fix and form its ball in any angle, or hollow
‘ place that is nearly of a size with the ball; it generally roams
‘ about for some time among the branches, till, having got a fit
‘ place, it begins its work by first spinning thin and irregular
‘ threads, which are to support its future structure; upon these it
‘ doth, on the first day, form a sort of oval of a loose texture,
‘ which is called the floss-silk; within this, on the subsequent
‘ three days, it forms the firm and more consistent ball of silk;
‘ it remains always on the inside of the sphere which it is forming;
‘ during its work it rests on its hind part, and with its mouth and
‘ fore-legs fastens and directs the thread. This thread is not di-
‘ rected in continued rounds on the inside of the ball, but is spun
‘ in spots forward and backward, in a sort of wavy figure; and
‘ this is the cause why a ball, in winding off its silk, will perhaps
‘ not turn once round while ten or twelve yards of silk are drawn
‘ out.

‘ At the end of three or four days the worm has usually finished
‘ its ball, in size and shape like a pigeon's egg; the inside of it is
‘ generally smeared with a sort of gum of the same nature with

‘ that out of which the silk is formed, and which seems designed
 ‘ in their natural state to keep out the rain, for it resists the wet
 ‘ so well, assisted by the silk which is round it, that the balls,
 ‘ when put in hot water to reel them off, swim on the top like
 ‘ small bladders, not admitting it within side, unless they are im-
 ‘ perfectly formed, or the silk almost quite reeled off. When the
 ‘ silk-ball is finished, the silkworm, being now much shortened
 ‘ and wrinkled, so that the rings of its body appear very deep,
 ‘ rests a while, and then throws off its skin ; this is the fifth time
 ‘ of its moulting, though not mentioned among its other moults,
 ‘ because it doth not interfere with your management ; and now
 ‘ upon opening the silk-ball, you would see it in the form of a
 ‘ grub or chrysalis, in shape somewhat like a kidney-bean, but
 ‘ pointed at one end, having a brown smooth skin composed in
 ‘ rings, and the worm’s skin which it threw off lies in the ball
 ‘ with it.

‘ In this form it continues, according to the different heat of
 ‘ the climate, from fifteen to thirty days ; in England it is thirty,
 ‘ reckoning from the time of its beginning to spin ; it then throws
 ‘ off the grub’s skin, which may be called the sixth moult, and
 ‘ has now the compleat form of a large white moth, with four
 ‘ wings, two black eyes, and two horns or antlers branching
 ‘ sideways, like two very small black feathers. It then immedi-
 ‘ ately begins to moisten the end of its silk ball with a clear liquor
 ‘ which it throws out of its mouth ; and thus softening the gum-
 ‘ minefs of the silk, it, by frequent motions of its head, loosens
 ‘ the texture of the silk, but doth not break it, and thus widens
 ‘ a passage by which it comes forth in the form of a moth, as
 ‘ described above.

‘ Though the silk is not broken, yet the balls which are thus
 ‘ pierced by the moth can never be reeled off, on account of the
 ‘ fuzzy burr of silk which is raised and loosened at the hole where
 ‘ the moth comes out, which immediately entangles the threads
 ‘ upon attempting to reel them ; therefore, that you may reap
 ‘ the advantage of the worms, it is necessary that the chrysalis or
 ‘ grub should be killed in those silk balls which you have not
 ‘ leisure to reel off before the time of the moth’s piercing them ;
 ‘ after having first made choice of a sufficient number of balls to
 ‘ breed from ; the manner of choosing them I shall give in the
 ‘ following chapter. But here I must mention one thing which I
 ‘ had forgotten, and this is, that after the silk-worm has begun
 ‘ its first loose threads, it generally lets fall a drop or two of mois-
 ‘ ture, the more in quantity as the season has been wet ; at the
 ‘ same time it evacuates its last litter, which is very glutinous and
 ‘ moist ; and by thus emptying itself before it is inclosed, it
 ‘ avoids fouling the inside of the silkpod.’

We are afterwards instructed how to chuse the silk pods, which
 are designed for breed ; how to kill the grub or chrysalis, to
 prevent

prevent the silk balls from being pierced ; how to manage the silk pods, which are chosen for breed ; how to couple the moths when they come out ; and to gather and preserve the eggs till next spring. He concludes this part with an account of the diseases and mortality incident to silk-worms.

In part IV. we find ingenious disquisitions into the nature of the silk thread as spun by the worm ; on the manner of reeling it, illustrated by prints of the reel and furnace ; on the method of disbanding the silk from the reel, and tying it up in skains ; on the use of the floss silk ; together with some additional observations on cleaning the hurdles from the litter made by the silk-worms.

Those, who from motives of curiosity, or with a view to amusement, are desirous of producing silk in Britain or Ireland, or in any other country of nearly the same temperature, will find in this treatise all the needful directions, penned with great accuracy and caution. We are afraid, however, that, notwithstanding all Mr. Pullein's endeavours, the silk-worm will never be naturalized in England ; and in happier climes, great part of his rules will be found unnecessary.

ART. III. *A Letter from the lord bishop of Winchester to Clement Chevallier, Esq; occasioned by Fournier's new attack, since the legal condemnation of his note over the bishop's name for 8,800l. with an account of that gentleman's conduct, in favour of the said Fournier. To which is added an appendix, shewing the several steps of Fournier's behaviour, from the day of his appeal to the bishop ; and the several variations of his story about the said note, in the order of time in which they happened. 8vo. Pr. 1s. 6d. Payne.*

THIS pamphlet contains an exact and circumstantial account of a very extraordinary fraud attempted to be practised on the bishop of Winchester, which, though of a private nature in regard to his lordship, may notwithstanding be consider'd as a matter of public concern ; because, as his lordship in his preface very judiciously observes, *memorials of wickedness* are as useful *admonitions*, as *memorials of virtue* are *guides*, to all the members of *civil society*, to which nothing can be a greater injury than the *coinage of false money*, or of *false money-notes*.

The principal circumstances of this remarkable imposture, extracted from the pamphlet, (which we have placed in the proper order of time for the benefit of our readers) are as follows.

Mr. B. Fournier seems, according to the bishop's account, to be a second Bower ; being one of those honest converts from popery who have thought it incumbent on them (doubtless merely for conscience sake) to change their country and religion, and come to London, this great metropolis, very properly call'd by Johnson,

The common sewer of Paris and of Rome,

where there are always fools enough to encourage and support them. Amongst the few particulars which the bishop has hitherto been able to pick up, concerning Fournier's character, we find (page v. of the preface to this pamphlet) a short account of his departure from his monastery and religion, written in French, and sign'd by a person the bishop never heard of, and translated into English. This was put by Fournier into the hands of one of his friends, who shew'd it to the bishop: the tenor of it is, that "B. Fournier was a religious, and a priest of the abbey royal of Chalis.—That, upon some ground for dissatisfaction, which he thought he had received from his order, he formed his design of retiring to Geneva, and of changing his religion there.—That he imparted something of this to some of the younger monks, whom he thought his friends.—That they revealed the matter to the superior; who, upon this, summoned a chapter.—That Fournier got from the boursier, some money for his journey; and in the night escaped over the wall.—That he came safe to Geneva, where he abjured popery, &c." This account the bishop shews to be highly improbable in every circumstance, imperfect, dark, absurd, and unsatisfactory.

Some time after the propagation of this ridiculous tale, which nothing can parallel but Bower's escape from Rome, we find this same ingenious convert boasting of the bishop of London's licence* to preach in every part of his diocese; though this licence proves, upon examination, to be no more than leave given to Fournier by the bishop, on the solicitation of a friend, to assist the French clergy, and that this was all is evident, because Fournier, at this time, did not pretend to understand English at all, or to speak it in any degree.

The next circumstance taken notice of by the bishop, previous to his own connections with him, is the parade of extraordinary integrity frequently made by Fournier and his friends on account of his resigning a living which he held some time for a minor. The bishop observes, that if, in regard to this affair, he had given nothing but a promise, there was certainly no great honesty in keeping it; it turns out, however, that Fournier had given a bond also, though this was concealed by his friend Mr. Chevallier; so that he only resign'd what he cou'd not keep without infamy through life, besides paying for his falsehood.

We now come to the period in which Fournier became known to the bishop, which was, it seems, in May 1740; when Fournier waited on his lordship with an appeal from a sentence given against him in the ecclesiastical court of Jersey, by the dean and his assessors. The bishop, instead of reversing, as Fournier probably expected, confirm'd the sentence, and desir'd Fournier to return to his curacy, and trouble himself no more about it. Fournier
however

* See preface to the pamphlet, pag. vi. and vii.

however forced the bishop into a correspondence by *letters*, about his cause, probably not without a view to the use which he afterwards made of them. In the year 1741 we find F. pushing his cause against the dean of Jersey, whom he arrested for the payment of *four promissory notes* for 1000 l. which the dean swore were a *forgery*, upon which affidavit of the dean's, F's attorney gave up the cause, and neither F. nor his agents, ever after this dared to revive it. Soon after this trial, the bishop was alarmed with a report that F. had shewn a note over his name for 8,800l. † Dr. Le Moine an acquaintance of F's who had seen the note, confirm'd this to his lordship. The note itself, together with the notes over the dean of Jersey, were soon after brought to the bishop by one Tyrel an old Frenchman, who desir'd the bishop to burn them, which he refused, but kept the notes for some time, and then return'd them.

In 1742 F. with his family fled to Ipswich, where he chang'd his habit into that of a layman, went under the name of *John Bequer*, and advertised that he taught the French tongue. The bishop in 1743 and 1744 receiv'd some scurrilous letters from him, but gave him no answer, being unwilling to enter into any further correspondence with him. In 1745 F. shew'd about the bishop's note to many people at Ipswich, of which Mr. Rant a counsellor there, inform'd the bishop. A conversation pass'd at that time between Rant and Fournier, wherein the latter contradicted himself (see pag. 95) over and over. The bishop, in the course of this affair, gives us an account of Fournier's amazing contradiction and falshoods, in regard to the note. In Fournier's first account, the note was given by the bishop for so much money, as a compensation for the injury done him by the bishop, in regard to the appeal : then, it was the overflowing of good-nature, and the effect of † strong liquors used by the bishop : then, the note was not design'd

† The note here referr'd to, is this—"I promise to pay to Mr. Bernard Fournier, Min. or his order, three months from date hereof, the sum of eight thousand eight hundred pounds, for value received ; as witness my hand this 4th day of September, 1740.

" B. WINCHESTER."

‡ In regard to this shameful insinuation of Fournier's, the bishop defends himself with a spirit and dignity becoming his truly noble and good character.

"I can, indeed, (*says the good old man*) upon the most severe recollection, truly affirm—That, from the earliest stage of life to this hour, I never was once under the least disorder of this kind ; not even by accident, or surprize from any design of others ;—That I never once, through my whole life, entertained myself, alone, in the low manner here pointed out ; nor ever once, with a friend, in any private or hidden way ;—That, in my general uniform course, those persons who have been at table with me at one certain time of the day, have been witnesses to all my indulgencies of this kind ;—and

sign'd for the money, but for security of a promise of preferment : then again, it was not by way of promise of preferment, but for the very sum of money specify'd. The five guineas given him by the bishop, at one time was a present ; and at another, was affirm'd to be paid by the bishop as part of the sum due on the note. Thus did this honest gentleman think proper to swear and forswear backwards and forwards, just as he thought might be most convenient to him ; till at length the bishop thought it high time to file a bill in chancery against him ; which was done in June 1748, in which he was requir'd to give a full account of *the note*. Before Fournier put in his answer to the bill, he sent a letter to the bishop, desiring that if his lordship thought proper, § the note might be destroyed, and thus an end put to the whole affair. The bishop rejecting this offer, Fournier put in his answer, though not till May 1749. The note was now delivered into court, and pleadings heard on each side concerning it. It appear'd, upon the whole, that several letters had pass'd between the bishop and Fournier, more particularly *six*, which were return'd to the bishop, three of them *with*, and the other three *without* the *covers*. On one of these *covers*, or *franks*, it is supposed Fournier wrote the abovementioned note over the bishop for 8,800*l*. that he scratched out the word *free*, over the bishop's name, and the hook after it (a constant custom of the bishop in his *franks*.) This cou'd not be done but by a *rasure*, which must leave a *thin* place where they stood ; accordingly there was in the note a *thin* place over the *name*, and another where the *hook* used to be ; the words of the direction were likewise *erased*, and plain marks appear'd of the paper being *pounced*, or otherwise prepared to prevent the ink from sinking into it. The note was writ upon a very small *scrap* of paper, four inches three quarters long, and two inches and a quarter wide ; the mark of the fold of a letter mani-

‘ and particularly, that, with relation to these detestable supports, which
 ‘ Fournier has wickedly invented for my old age; I thank God, it is such
 ‘ an old age as not only does not want them, but abhors the thought of
 ‘ them. Let me add, that I now speak thus, well knowing that, if
 ‘ what I say be false, it may be easily confuted by some or other of
 ‘ those many, who have, at various times, lived under the same roof
 ‘ with me ; or of those numerous friends and acquaintance, with whose
 ‘ visits (at all hours never refused) I have been favoured. Nor can
 ‘ any one, I think, be so void of candour, as to imagine me to seek
 ‘ for any applause by what I have now said. For, what praise can it
 ‘ be to a christian, and a preacher of the gospel, that he is innocent
 ‘ of one crime, of which it is most infamous for him to be guilty ?’

§ The note brought to the bishop, with this letter, by one Harding an attorney, was not, in the bishop's opinion, the same as that which had been brought him by Tyrrel in 1741 ; this the bishop proves by several particulars, sufficiently pointing out the differences between them, see pag. 102 to pag. 113 of the pamphlet. His lordship is remarkably exact and circumstantial in this account, and makes it very clear, that in all probability, more notes than one had been writ over his name by the ingenious Mr. Fournier.

manifestly shewed itself in the note. F's guilt appear'd from all these marks of fraud and imposture; from the words of the note; from its being wrote by Fournier himself, and not by the bishop; from the absurdity of the bishop's giving a note for such a sum to any man to the ruin of his family, without any * *value receiv'd* for it, as there specified. Accordingly in July 1752, a decree was pronounced, which was as follows: "That the *note* bearing date " the 4th of September 1740, set up by the defendant Fournier, " against the *plaintiff the bishop of Winchester, appears to be, and is,* " *a gross fraud and contrivance of the defendant Fournier*; and decree, " that the said note be deposited in the hands of the register, subject to the further order of this court, and the defendant pay " unto the plaintiff his costs of this suit, to be taxed by the master, " and refer it to Mr. Spicer."

The bishop concludes his pamphlet in the following spirited manner: ' If ever, (*says he*) any money-note, since that name was ' known in the world of business, went through so many changes ' of name and nature, as this has done, in the accounts given of ' it by the very person upon whom it was found; and, after such ' a series of variations, was ever thought to be a genuine and honest ' note; let this note be thought so.

' If the man who gave it twice under his hand, first to Mr. Rant, and afterwards to Mr. Chevallier, That this note was designed for the payment of the sum named in it; and afterwards ' sware, in a public court of justice, that this same note was designed only to be a security for preferment, and consequently, ' was not designed for the payment of that sum; could be an ' honest possessor of this note; let Fournier be accounted so.

' But, at the same time, let truth and falshood, integrity and ' knavery, simplicity and fraud, be decreed to be the same things; ' or (which is all one) to have the same marks so strong upon them, ' that they cannot be at all distinguished from one another. And, ' when this is the case, let civil society subsist, if it can.'

Such are the principal circumstances of this extraordinary fact; by which it appears to us, that Fournier's intention was to have deferr'd

* In 1728, a cause similar to this of the bishop's was tried at the Old Bailey; when one *Hales* was indicted for forging a note of hand for 6400*l.* on *Thomas Gibson*. It proved on the trial, that the body of the note was wrote by *Hales* on the direction of a letter *frank'd* by *Gibson*. At the bottom of the note were the words *for myself and partners*. The word *for* was originally *free*, but the two *ees* had been taken out, and the *o* crowded between the *F* and the *r*. The words *myself and partners* were added by the forger. The evidence observ'd, at the same time, that (*as in this case of the bishop*) the note appear'd folded like part of a letter, and that Mr. *Gibson* wou'd never have wrote a note of that consequence, on such a *scrap* of paper. *Hales* was a little afterwards indicted for several other forgeries of the same kind, was convicted, and stood twice in the pillory.

deferr'd making any profitable use of the note till after the bishop's decease, when it might probably have been the cause of much trouble and uneasiness to his family. Fortunately for his lordship this worthy gentleman was imprudent enough to shew the note about, during the bishop's life-time, which put it in his lordship's power to bring this whole scene of iniquity to light, and to prevent the ill consequences of it. The punishment, indeed, hitherto inflicted on Fournier, is, by no means, adequate to his guilt; the conviction has, however, had its effect, in exposing the character of the offender, and probably putting it out of his power to practise any fraud of the same kind for the future.

It may be sufficient, in regard to the letter to Mr. Chevallier (which we have pass'd slightly over, as not so material to the fact) to observe, that this gentleman had, in his lordship's opinion, been to blame in patronising and protecting Fournier, even after receiving sufficient proofs of his guilt: this, however, is a point which the bishop touches with great delicacy and politeness, acknowledging that Mr. Chevallier was a man of unblemished character, and great integrity; which made him wonder the more at his behaviour in the case before us, and that Mr. Chevallier should give public encouragement and countenance to such a man. The bishop expresses some warmth on this occasion, and seems to think Mr. Chevallier, in some measure, accessory to the trouble and uneasiness which Fournier had caused him in the affair; but assures him, at the end of the letter, that he forgives him as fully and sincerely as it is his duty to do.

We cannot conclude this article without observing the remarkable exactness and perspicuity, the order and accuracy, in which every circumstance is related; and that the performance, though even on so unpromising a subject, carries with it the marks of that masterly hand, so visible in every work of this illustrious prelate: there is not the least sign of the weakness, peevishness, or imbecillity of old age in the whole; but throughout, the strongest testimony of the *viridis senectus*, so rare in all times, and more so in our own.

Qualis fuit cum tales sint reliquæ!

ART. IV. *The history of Miss Sally Sable, by the author of the memoris of a Scotch-family. In two volumes. 12mo. Pr. 6s. Noble.*

SIR William Traffick, an honest wealthy merchant, was master of a house a few miles from London; and near it dwelt Mr. Graham, a worthy but poor clergyman, who had taken care of the education of Sally Sable (so called from her fine dark eyes) a foundling, taken up in the fields by a poor woman, belonging to a neighbouring alms-house, now dead; and for his trouble, Sir William,

William, who was extremely charitable, made him a small allowance. Sally was extremely beautiful, nor had nature stinted her in mental accomplishments; she soon learned every thing useful that offered, became a proficient in French and Latin, and was perfect mistress of Horace. Being now upwards of 12 years old, she chanced, hurrying one day along the road, to fall down and sprain her ankle; she was taken up by two gentlemen passing by in a coach, who not only relieved, but set her down at Mr. Graham's door: one of them was Sir William's younger, and now only son, who been disappointed in love, and having long sought relief in a general dissipation, from that moment meditated the ruin of our heroine, whose beauty charmed him; nor was his nephew, Sir William's next heir, now about 17, proof against her perfections.

The uncle was the first assailant; he found means to decoy her from her guardian's to a house of evil fame in London, where he at first detained her under specious pretences, and afterwards by force, without being able to accomplish her destruction. He was determined upon it one night at any rate, but was prevented by an account just then arriving of his father's death. In the confusion occasioned by this intelligence, she found means to escape, and threw herself under the care of a sober watchman, who conducted her home, to the great joy of the good parson, who blessed God for her deliverance, and could scarcely credit the villainy of his patron's son. Being deprived of the usual allowance by Sir William's death, he was obliged to permit Sally to enter the service of a religious motherly gentlewoman in the neighbourhood, whose family consisted of only herself, her daughter, an old man and a maid. One night the daughter discovered to Sally, that she and her supposed mother were no relations, that the one was a baud, the other a prostitute; at the same time advising her to get away in the middle of the night, while she would supply her place in bed with Mr. Traffick, who was to be that night privately introduced to debauch her; so that she had no alternative but infamy or flight; the latter she chose, and her adviser took an opportunity of leaving Traffick before day-light in the morning, carrying off his watch and money; so that the blame naturally fell on Sally, who was supposed a whore, thief, and hypocrite: in consequence of which imputations, she lost the favour of Mr. Graham, and the esteem of Mr. Traffick: however, time cleared up her character, the baud being found out and routed, and Mr. Traffick set right as to her innocence. But this discovery is not made till near the end of the second volume.

Sally having escaped in the middle of the night with her bundle, mistook her way, and turning wrong, came to London, where, before she was aware, she was taken up as a vagabond, and carried to the watch-house, where she was extremely ill used by some young drunken rakes, who would have carried her off,
had

had it not been for the constable of the night, an honest shoemaker, that took it in his head she was innocent, and resolved to keep her so in spite of corruption. He the next morning carried her to his wife, who conceived a friendship for her; and the honest man having in vain laboured to restore her to the good graces of Mr. Graham, got her a place as maid to a neighbouring apothecary's wife; from thence she was stolen away, and smuggled into France by a young lord, who had observed and fallen in love with her.

As she landed at Calais very weak, she was seen by young Sir William Traffick, who was just then returning from Paris, and had been one of the rakes that had heretofore endeavoured to force her from the watch-house: he suspecting her having been run away with, set a trusty servant to go about enquiring, who made himself master of the whole story, and contrived her escaping from my lord in boy's cloaths; and being put on-board a ship, all search after her was ineffectual. My lord was inconsolable; Sir William treated her with the highest respect, and landed her safely at Dover: it was in this voyage that she felt a passion for the baronet, which she endeavoured to extinguish in its rise, trembling at what might be its result.

To escape the fears suggested by her own weakness, and Sir William's base designs, she made a friend of an orderly woman that attended her in the inn, who helped her to run away, kept her concealed till his departure, and then procured a place to wait on two ladies, daughters of a merchant retired from business; so that her situation was not the most comfortable till they were divided, and she was chosen to wait upon one of them going to London.

Here it chanced that a match was set on foot between her and Sir William Traffick, which was disconcerted by his finding Sally in the house; his passion returned with fresh vigour; his lust was changed into love of the purest nature, and marriage from that moment his design. Sally had been seen speaking to him casually; the worst inferences were drawn, and she instantly discharged: some of the servants recommended her to lodge with a young woman in the neighbourhood, also out of place, by whom she was robbed of all her things, reduced to the last necessity, and set out once more to seek the assistance of the honest shoemaker, but in her way was pushed down the stairs of a cellar by a chair: the accident was seen by the gentleman in it, who immediately came out to relieve the object; but judge their mutual surprise, when he found his Sally, and she saw Sir William.

He was grieved for the accident, but it charmed him, as it gave him an opportunity of manifesting his respectful attachment; he had her taken all imaginable care of; and when she recovered, reconciled her to the good graces of Mr. Graham, by whom they were married. But, alas! her misfortunes were not here to end.

end. Mr. Traffick had seen her from the window of a tavern opposite to the house in which she lived; he was, upon inquiry, informed of her connexions with his young nephew; that he should have wedded a prostitute, and an infamous one too; a thief hurted him sorely. The very day on which they were married, he spirited her away, and had her carried down to Northumberland, where she was kept closely confined in the house of one of his tenants for three or four months, from which she at length found a way to escape, and flung herself under the protection of a neighbouring gentleman, who sent word of her situation to the disconsolate Sir William: he rode post, on the intelligence, to embrace her, and they met never to part again.

At the same time Mr. Traffick, the uncle, discovered that Sally Sable was his own daughter by Miss Carey, a lady whom he had intoxicated and debauched in her brother's house, but never seen since, and he now supposed her to be dead. A certainty of his kindred threw him into a violent fit of sickness, which was augmented by a remembrance of the pains he had taken to ruin her, in which, to his eternal confusion, he imagined he had succeeded. He was undeceived by an idle woman, who had purchased the watch that he supposed Sally had taken from him in the house of the procurefs, of whom we have before taken notice. He posted down to Newcastle to give her a release, and the blessing of a father: to his inexpressible satisfaction he saw her already in the arms of his nephew, a conjunction that he confirmed with a large fortune, besides what his nephew, who was next heir to his real estate, could have possibly expected: and now giving himself up to remorse and repentance for his past vices, our novel is brought to an happy conclusion.

As Mess. Noble have frequently taken the liberty to call in question both our abilities and integrity in the task which we have undertaken, and most impudently asserted that we give our judgments of things which we have never read, we have here taken the pains to analyse this flimsy and miserable performance, a trouble which they must not expect we shall take for the future. Our readers will easily perceive, that this novel contains nothing but a heap of strange and improbable accidents, without any connection, and intirely independent on each other: that the scene lies almost from beginning to end in very low life, scarce presenting any thing to us but houses of ill fame, bauds, strumpets, constables, and coblers. What service the exhibition of such dirty scenes can be to the public, it is not easy to determine.

The reading of such trash is only, in our opinion, mispending that time which should be better employed. The admirers of these unentertaining and unimproving tales, are in some measure accessory to the false taste, bad morals, and general depravity of the present age. Novels, if well written, may be of great use; and if Mess. Noble will give us a good one, we shall be as ready to praise

praise it, as their most sanguine friends and readers. In the mean time we will not so far prostitute our pens and characters as to recommend what we despise, or praise any performance which we do not approve.

ART. V. *The natural history of Iceland: containing a particular and accurate account of the different soils, burning mountains, minerals, vegetables, metals, stones, beasts, birds, and fishes; together with the disposition, customs, and manner of living of the inhabitants. Interpersed with an account of the island by Mr. Anderson, late Burgo-master of Hamburgh. To which is added, a meteorological table, with remarks. Translated from the Danish original of Mr. N. Horrebow, and illustrated with a new general map of the island. Fol. Pr. 15 s. Linde.*

THE favourable reception given by the public to the natural history of Norway, by bishop Pontoppidan, in all likelihood, encouraged Mr. Horrebow to oblige the world with this account of Iceland: but as it does not turn so much upon the marvellous, and is in other respects less entertaining than that production, we are afraid it will not meet with the same success; tho' we believe it may be equally useful, and much more to be depended upon in point of veracity.

Iceland, which is, next to Great-Britain, the largest island in Europe, is supposed to have been discovered in the year 861, and settled in the year 874; and notwithstanding the terrible accounts that have been given of the coldness of the climate, the poverty of the soil, and the danger arising from earthquakes and volcanoes, we find it very habitable in winter as well as in summer. The soil is in many places, good and fertile; the weather not more severe and uncomfortable here than in Denmark, and the damage done by the eruptions from burning mountains so inconsiderable, that it hardly deserves to be mentioned. The histories of Iceland that have formerly appeared are shamefully erroneous, and interlarded with the most ridiculous fables, the effects of misinformation, ignorance, and superstition.

One great motive that induced Mr. Horrebow to publish this work, was a desire of vindicating the island and its inhabitants from those gross errors and misrepresentations; and, in particular, to refute and rectify the mistakes of Mr. John Anderson, burgo-master in Hamburgh, who compiled an erroneous history of Iceland from the superficial accounts and information he had received of ship-masters, supercargoes, and factors, who had traded to, or resided in the island.

Mr. Horrebow's history is founded upon what he himself has seen and experienced during two years which he passed on the island.

island. He ascertained the elevation of the pole by means of a lunar eclipse: he took the exact latitude of the island by a telescope furnished with a micrometer; and found that Iceland lies almost four degrees more to the east than it has hitherto been computed: He made his observations on the weight of the air by means of the barometer and thermometer, together with many useful meteorological and physical remarks: the affixed map was carefully copied from a large original map of Iceland, made by some of his Danish majesty's engineers sent thither for that purpose, and seems to be executed with great accuracy. Iceland is an island in the Atlantic sea, lying in 64 deg. 4 min. north latitude, 25 deg. west longitude from the meridian of London. It's length from east to west, extends to 720 English miles: it's breadth at the narrowest part, amounts to 246 miles, though in most parts to 360. In the interior parts of the island are very extensive heaths and plains, together with vast mountains covered with snow: yet these are generally passable; and on the tops of them are plains of twenty miles extent. In several places there are large tracts of land with good grass for pasture, and great lakes abounding with variety of fine fish. Some of the mountains, which at all times are covered with ice and snow, are called Jokeler. From the tops a dark, fuddy, thick, stinking water continually flows like a great river. These Jokeler are not the highest part of the mountains, there being many near them much higher, yet without snow continually on them. This may probably be owing to the nitrous quality of the earth. There appears a very extraordinary phenomenon in these places, which may rather belong to a metaphysical than historical description. However, it will not be amiss to give a brief account of it in the strange property of these places called Jokells, which increase in bulk, and again diminish and change their appearance almost every day. For instance, paths are seen in the sand, made by travellers that passed the day before. When followed, they lead to a place, like a large pond or lake, frozen over, very dangerous to pass, and not there the day before. This obliges travellers to go two or three English miles round. Then they come again to the very path opposite to that they were obliged to leave. In a few days the interrupted path appears again, all the ice and water having, as it were, vanished. Sometimes travellers are bold enough to venture over the ice rather than go so much about. But it often happens that their horses falling into the great breaks which are sometimes in the ice, it is not in their power to save them. A few days after these very horses are seen lying on the top of the flat ice, where before was a hole several fathom deep, but now closed up and frozen. The ice must therefore in this intermediate time melt away, and the water freeze again. Hence it may be concluded, that there is no sure road round and over these mountains, but

‘ by thus continually passing and repassing. Sometimes travellers
 ‘ meet with accidents, but not very often. These kind of Jokells
 ‘ are only in Skaftefields Syffel, a south part of the country.
 ‘ Hecla and the western Jokells are of another kind, and do not
 ‘ change their appearance in this manner. These consist of many
 ‘ stony rocks and mountains. Most of the latter produce some
 ‘ vegetable.’

The island is but thinly peopled: though the number of inhabitants was once much greater: but the country was almost depopulated by a pestilential disease that raged in the fourteenth century; and the inhabitants that survived have multiplied to about fourscore thousand. These chiefly live along the coast, in towns and factories, where they trade with the merchants: the rest live in the country in single farms. They sometimes feel slight shocks of earthquakes; and in the year 1728, a mountain discharged a stream of *lava* which continued running slowly, 'till the year 1730, when it stopt of its own accord. Hecla, Krafle, and about eighteen other mountains, have been known to emit flame, ashes and calcined stones, but not for many years. ‘ A
 ‘ strange phenomenon happened in 1721, in the district of Skafte-
 ‘ field to the south, at a mountain called Kotlegau, about 30
 ‘ or 36 English miles from the sea, near Portland's bay. After
 ‘ several warnings by shocks of an earthquake, it first disgorged
 ‘ fire which melted down the ice. A most rapid torrent of water
 ‘ ensued, bearing away with it an incredible quantity of sand
 ‘ and earth, and destroying all the ground it went over by wash-
 ‘ ing away all the mould. The intire current rushed with the same
 ‘ violence into the sea and filled it up like a hill, to near three
 ‘ miles distance from the shore. It since gradually declined to
 ‘ its present condition, appearing not much above the surface of
 ‘ the water. Between this mountain and the sea there is a rock
 ‘ called Haver Ey, to the top of which the two travellers retired.
 ‘ Though the inundation overspread all adjoining parts to the
 ‘ height of several fathoms, and destroyed a deal of fine ground
 ‘ and grass, they notwithstanding, about a day and a half after,
 ‘ pursued their journey across the country that had been over-
 ‘ flowed, and were able to give the best account of this frightful
 ‘ sight, which they beheld without any danger from the top of
 ‘ the rock Haver Ey.

‘ This mountain stands in an extensive sandy plain, called Mid-
 ‘ dals sands.

He explodes the notion that prevailed concerning a lake which takes fire three times a year; and gives a curious description of the hot waters found in many parts of this island. ‘ Those that
 ‘ live near these hot baths, of which in this island there are many,
 ‘ whose water is continually boiling hot, employ the same for se-
 ‘ veral uses. They sometimes take a pot or any vessel filled with
 ‘ cold water, put the meat or whatever they have to boil in it,
 ‘ and

and hang the vessel at a certain depth in the well. It presently boils, and in this manner they dress their boiled victuals without being at any expence for fuel.

I have met with travellers, who having their tea-kettle with them, filled it with water and boiled it instantly in one of these baths; and I have seen people sit the whole day bending of hoops for barrels at the edge of these boiling hot baths, by the heat of which they bent some of an extraordinary thickness. Every two hours or less, they were obliged to set aside their work, and take fresh air to prevent any ill effects from the sulphureous and other bad smells of the steam, which expands itself to a considerable distance. The stench has been so strong at some of them, that I was not able to bear it. The ground about these hot wells is generally of various colours, and contains some sulphur, alum and saltpetre.

Besides the benefit the inhabitants have of boiling their victuals and water at these places, they make use of them to wash or bathe in. The water that continually overflows and runs at some distance is of proper heat for bathing. Sometimes they contrive to bring cold water to the basons: for as before observed, there are actually basons at the mouth of some of the springs, as if they were hewn out and fashioned by a stone-cutter. By this means they assuage the heat of the water, and make it fit for bathing. I have seen one of these basons most remarkably capacious, smooth within, and well-shaped for the purpose. It was in a solid rock without any cracks, the bottom very smooth, and at any time could be covered with a tilt-cloth. It had besides this advantage; that there was an aqueduct to it from hot and cold springs, some so hot that one could not bear a finger in them, others so cold as ice, and both conveyed to or from the bason at pleasure, by which means the water in the bason could be brought to any desired degree of warmth. At the bottom of this reservoir, so formed by nature, was a hole made, through which the water could easily be carried off into a little adjoining rivulet. A fresh supply of clean water was always at hand to fill it again on stopping up the hole. The people that live here bathe frequently in it, and chiefly on this account are a very healthy people, and generally live to a good old age.

His account of the minerals and plants, seems to be imperfect. Of the herbs he mentions only, the *cochlearia*, the *acetosa*, *angelica*, and *musculus catharticus Islandiae* or mountain grass, which grows in great abundance, and is cooked up into a delicate dish; it is in every respect, good and wholesome food, and serves instead of meal and flour. The herbs and roots of the kitchen garden thrive well in this soil, which in all probability would likewise produce all fruits that are to be found in the northern climates, were the experiment properly tried. Agriculture, however, is utterly neglected; and the inhabitants are supplied with meal from other countries.

Treating of the animals, he says, there are no bears on the island, but such as may by chance be conveyed on the floating ice from Greenland; and these are immediately destroyed. One man armed with a spear, will boldly attack this animal. ' If a bear unawares comes upon a man, who is not used to such an encounter, or has not power to resist, the bear may very likely fall upon him; but the natives here know pretty well how to get out of the way, by throwing something at him to amuse him. A glove is very proper for this purpose; for he will not stir till he has turned even every finger of it inside out; and as they are not very dextrous with their paws, this takes up some time, and in the mean while the person makes off. It once happened in the northern district, that a person was killed by one of them; but the Icelanders are usually very vigilant that none should settle among them, chiefly on account of their cattle. Besides, there is a reward for the hide, which must be delivered to the justice of the peace for the king. The Greenland bear skins are counted the finest and best that are, being white, grey, brown, and spotted.

In Iceland there is great store of foxes, some of which are white, and others grey: black foxes are sometimes driven hither on flakes of ice, but are not natives of the country. Their horses are of different sizes, of the Norwegian and Scottish breed, tame, hardy, and mettlesome. They keep a great number of sheep, which are fed and treated much in the same manner, as in other northern countries. They have likewise plenty of cows, and bullocks; consequently they must make considerable quantities of butter and cheese: but salt being a scarce commodity, they do not salt their butter, nor pickle their meat: when they lay in their winter provision of beef or mutton, instead of pickling, they hang it up to dry, or smoak it, so as to preserve it from putrefaction. They have few hogs, but are not deficient in poultry and pigeons. Here are also snipes, ouzles, beccasines, and partridges: their birds of prey are the eagle, the hawk, the falcon, the vulture, and the raven. The coast swarms with sea birds that live on fish and breed among the rocks. Iceland abounds with wild ducks and swans, which keep in the fresh rivers up the country, where they lay their eggs and hatch their young. The wild goose is a bird of passage that comes in the spring and goes in the autumn: there are ten different species of wild ducks, six of which are fit to eat, and well flavoured. The sea around them teems with myriads of delicious fish. Herrings, in their passage to and from the south, are driven into the creeks and bays of Iceland, in vast shoals by the whales and other large fish: a whale pursuing them too greedily ran himself aground and was killed by the inhabitants, who found in his belly upwards of 600 fine live cod, together with a great quantity of herrings, and some birds: but their chief fishery is of the cod or kebbelau, which is

chiefly caught about the south and west parts of the island. ' The
' Icelanders cure their cod but one way, and when cured, they
' call it flat-fish. It is exported to Copenhagen and Gluckstad,
' and is a fish very well known, and as well tasted, as any
' found or cured elsewhere. Westward they hang them up to
' dry, and call them hang-fish. They have houses on purpose
' to dry them, which are built of lathes, pretty wide asunder,
' for the air to draw through, and a covering to keep out the
' rain. To cure them this way, they slit open their backs, and
' run a pole through them, and then hang them up to dry. The
' flat-fish have their bellies slit open, and are afterwards spread
' out to dry. The hang-fish are something cheaper than the flat-
' fish, because flat-fish is the merchantable sort, and therefore there
' are a hundred slit and dried flat on the ground, to one that is
' hung. When the fishermen land with their cod, they lay them
' out along the shore, cut off their heads, slit open their bellies,
' gut them, then slit them quite down, and take out the back-
' bone from the head down to three joints below the navel. This
' the men do themselves. The foreman of the boat divides the
' fish, and every one that went has his lot. When they have
' slit them, and taken the back-bone out, they double them up
' together again, and lay them one by one, if the weather pro-
' mises fair the next day, to spread them out to dry; but if the
' weather looks otherwise, they spread the fish out, and lay them
' one over the other, the skin side upwards, and so let them lie a
' day and night; but take care not to let them lie too long so for
' fear of spoiling.' What follows, is their method of managing
the flat-fish. ' When they have cut the head off, and slit open
' the belly, the entrails are taken out, then the fish is quite
' laid open, and the back-bone taken out, afterwards it is doubled
' up, or two are put together, the flesh part to each other. This
' is done when the weather is clear, and the air dry, that they
' may the next day spread the fish out upon the stones; but
' when the weather is damp, or a frost happens, they then lay
' them in little heaps upon one another, with the skin upwards,
' and let them lie till the weather is fit for drying, at which
' time they spread them out upon stones if they can, but where
' they have no stones, along the coast, and this they do the
' day after they arrive with them if the weather will admit of
' it, for it makes the fish much better, though they generally re-
' ceive no damage by lying three or four weeks in case, as they
' call it, which is in little heaps upon one another, provided it is
' not very foggy or damp weather, or too hard a frost. Whilst
' they lie to dry, the women go and turn them several times a day,
' that both sides may imbibe equal portions of the sun and air.
' In fine weather they will thoroughly dry in fourteen days, though
' they generally take more time. When the fish is quite dry, they

are heaped up together upon the stones, and then will receive no damage from any kind of weather. Each lays his lot together, and piles it up about as high as a man can reach; but when the fish are brought to market from each district, they pile them then as high as houses, or like great stacks of hay. They sell all they can, without ever bringing them under roof; but what they keep for their own consumption they lay up in their houses. When the merchants have got them in stacks, and it threatens wet weather, they cover them to keep off the rain, till they can conveniently ship them, which they do as soon as possibly they can. In sending them abroad, care is taken that they contract no damp in the place they are deposited; the reason is, because there is a great difference between their being packed down close in a ship, and their standing in stacks, where the air draws through, and dries them immediately after they have been moistened. The hang-fish are prepared in the same manner as the flat-fish, saving that they are slit down the back to run the pole through, whereon they hang to dry in houses built for that purpose, as has been already described. They also are hanged up the day after they come from sea. They have likewise plenty of ling, haddock, whiting, tislung, cole-fish, flounders, and turbot, some of which last are six feet long and broad in proportion. They catch a good number of large whales, with plenty of porpoises, sea-calves, sword-fishes, and seals: and their lakes and rivers produce excellent salmon, eels and trout. No snakes of any kind, are to be met with throughout the whole island.

The Icelanders are subject to hectic disorders, fevers, and a species of leprosy which is hereditary, in all probability owing to an obstructed or irregular perspiration; to a fish diet, unseasoned with salt, which they never use; and to the great quantity of butter which they consume in sauce. Their fuel is turf, timber, furze, and heath, and where these cannot be procured, they burn sea weeds and dried fish bones. The liquor which they commonly drink is called *fyre*, which is whey boiled with sorrel; and this likewise serves them for vinegar. When they kill many sheep together, they most commonly pickle the heads in their *fyre*, a liquor already described, and as tart as vinegar. These heads are nicely scraped, and boiled before they pickle them down, which is done in the same manner as in Denmark. Afterwards for use, they fry them in a pan. I do not doubt but they may taste tolerably well. The Icelanders are very fond of any thing that is fat, and some of the poorer people will eat the melted tallow or fat of their young heifers or sheep. These poor people having been represented by some travellers and authors, as living in a very bestial manner; I shall here briefly give an exact account of their way of living, and ordinary food,

' A great quantity of fresh fish is eaten all over the country,
 ' except in the parts that lie too remote from the sea, and the fresh
 ' lakes, of which there are but very few, as I before hinted. The
 ' quantity of fish dried or cured for keeping, is little in proportion
 ' to the great variety of different sorts they get, and must eat fresh.
 ' The fish they dry and cure different ways is chiefly for exporta-
 ' tion; and the residue, laid up for home consumption, consists
 ' mostly of such fish as have changed colour, do not look so clear
 ' and white, and are touched by the frost, though in the main, full
 ' as well tasted, and as fit for use. They boil their fish generally
 ' too much, and use a good deal of butter. The dried or stock-
 ' fish, which they eat chiefly in winter, when they cannot get
 ' fresh, is well beaten before boiled, and cooked up with a good
 ' store of melted butter. They also much use for food the milk
 ' of cows and sheep, both raw and boiled, and they prepare
 ' of their cows milk their common drink called *syre*, and in the
 ' summer make great quantities to serve them all the year. The
 ' curds and sweet milk they feed their servants with, as well as
 ' with fish, and also allow them butter. They thicken up their
 ' milk with barley, or other grain, and with flour make hasty
 ' pudding. They put barley, or other grain, into their broth,
 ' for want of herbs and spices. In some places they have cabbage,
 ' which they boil in their broth. They use barley in almost all
 ' their victuals, and particularly for making a sort of hasty pud-
 ' ding. Their fresh meat they roast or fry, but always first par-
 ' boil it. Some make use of peas, and rye-meal, to make a dish
 ' for the servants. Whatever they boil or fry in their stew-pan
 ' is always quite fresh, and they rather overboil all their fish and
 ' flesh-meat, because it goes very much against them to eat any
 ' thing that is not thoroughly done. Their kitchen utensils they
 ' generally have from Copenhagen. Their pots and kettles are
 ' of iron, brass, or copper, which they keep neat and sweet. All
 ' of them dress their victuals very clean, except some few, who,
 ' no doubt, are as nasty as elsewhere, but a whole country should
 ' not be vilified, much less involved in the same scandal on their
 ' account. Those who have been abroad, and at Copenhagen,
 ' dress their victuals in the Danish manner, and live as nice as
 ' folks do there; others learn from them, and in all other re-
 ' spects every one lives according to his inclinations and circum-
 ' stances.'

There is nothing extraordinary in the garb of the men; but,
 the dress of the other sex is uncommon. ' The women wear pet-
 ' ticoats, jackets and aprons of woollen cloth or bays, which
 ' they call *vadmel*, and over which they wear a kind of wide coat,
 ' with narrow sleeves, that reaches down to their wrists. These
 ' coats or gowns, are a hand's breadth shorter than the petti-
 ' coats; they are always black, and are called by the name of
 ' *hempe*, which is the same the mens great coats go by. Some-

' times they are faced with black velvet, and sometimes the work
 ' on them resembles *pointe de la reine*, which is very neat and looks
 ' well. Those that are rich, have wrought silver and gilt buckles,
 ' or clasps, which are only fastened on for show or ornament. The
 ' petticoats and aprons which are coloured, are bordered round and
 ' down the edges with slips of coloured velvet, or coloured silk
 ' ribbands, or a silk braid at the tie of their apron. Three great
 ' silver philligre worked buttons, and generally gilt, are fixed be-
 ' fore. The poorer women have them of brass. The apron is
 ' fastened to a belt, set all round with silver buttons, or of brass,
 ' according to their circumstances, and clasped before with a clasp
 ' of the same metal and workmanship. Their jackets are always
 ' made to fit neat and close to the waist, with narrow sleeves down
 ' to their wrists, and are laced in all the seams with coloured vel-
 ' vet or ribbands, and faced down before with silk. On each
 ' sleeve near the wrist, are four or six buttons of silver or brass;
 ' and round the neck a stiff cape is worn about three fingers
 ' breadth, which stands erect, and under it the wide coat is
 ' made to go. This cape is covered with handsome silk or black
 ' velvet, and a gold or silver braid round it. About their head
 ' they tie a coarse white linen handkerchief, and over that an-
 ' other finer, formed like a tuft on the top of the head, and a
 ' foot and a half high. Over this they place a silk handkerchief,
 ' or the poorer sort a cotton one, which is tied under the chin:
 ' This kind of head-dress is worn by all women, whether single
 ' or married, and round their necks they have usually another silk
 ' or cotton handkerchief. In short, their dress much resembles
 ' what is met with in old pictures, and monuments in churches,
 ' except the head-dress, of which I have not remarked any thing
 ' similar in any other country. The young girls wear caps, but
 ' when grown up, they change them for those high heads. The
 ' richer sort have a deal of finery about them, consisting of silver
 ' and gilt philligre work, which they most admire. Some large
 ' buttons of that sort of work, with coloured stones set in them,
 ' and fastened to their fillet, are worn a little above their fore-
 ' head. A bride on her wedding-day, wears a crown of silver un-
 ' der the white linen tuft that stands up so high on their heads,
 ' and on this occasion is used instead of the silk handkerchief worn
 ' at other times. They wear also two silver chains, the one hang-
 ' ing down behind, and the other in the same manner on the breast.
 ' The *bempe* or great coat, is never worn during these solemnities.
 ' To the bottom of another chain, which hangs down before, a
 ' box of perfumes is fastened, with several partitions, and open on
 ' both sides. It is very often shaped like a heart or a cross. I
 ' have seen some of them of gold. Several of the Iceland ladies
 ' have trinkets to the amount of three or four hundred rixdollars;
 ' and indeed their dress is vastly neat and pretty. The men and
 ' womens shoes, which most commonly are all made by the wo-
 ' men,

men, are of their ox's hides, or for want of them, of sheep-skins, which they dress themselves, by only scraping the hair off, and afterwards drying them. To set about making the shoes, they first soak the leather in water, and when duly prepared, they go through all the different operations, and seldom fail to fit them exactly to the feet, but scarce ever trouble themselves about fixing heels to them. Their shirts and shifts are usually made of thin bays or flannel, though a great many have them of coarse linen.

Their houses and furniture are very mean and inconvenient. The people are sober, honest and industrious; but not much skilled in mechanics, and rude and awkward in their manufactures. The commodities they export are dried fish, salted lambs flesh, some beef, butter, train-oil, a great quantity of tallow, woollen goods, as coarse and fine bays, or vadmél jackets, stockings and gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, young lamb-skins, foxes skins of various colours, edder-down and feathers, and formerly sulphur, but now not taken any more from them: these are the chief commodities of this country.

The goods imported to Iceland are timber, fishing-lines, tobacco, bread, horse-shoes, brandy, wine, salt, coarse linen, a small quantity of silk, and a few other things people in good circumstances may have occasion for in their families. All these commodities are to be imported only by the Danes, who for this purpose erected a company, and have a charter from their sovereign for the exclusive privilege; so that no other nation is allowed to trade there. Whatever the Icelander takes, he makes a return for in his own goods, which if not sufficient, the balance is paid in the above-mentioned money.

They profess the lutheran religion, and the island is divided into two bishopricks. Their clergy are poor, and their churches mean. They are ruled by a governor and deputy governor appointed by his Danish majesty; this last always resides in the island, and his salary amounts to about four hundred rixdollars. There is likewise a receiver or land-steward, who collects the taxes and revenues, and accounts with inferior sysselmén, who are persons that farm the king's taxes in different districts. These act as justices of the peace; but there are two supreme judges who are sometimes allowed deputies. Every dispute relating to *menm* and *tuum*, is decided by the old Iceland law: but, the Norwegian law takes place in causes relating to freehold property. Male criminals are put to death by hanging or decapitation: but women are tied up in sacks and drowned. The book concludes with meteorological observations made at Besssted in Iceland, from August 1, 1749 to July 1751.

On the whole we think this is a work of merit, written with accuracy, modesty and candour; and though we own ourselves ignorant

norant of the Danish language, we will venture to say the translation is well executed; in as much as the language is clear, coherent and correct.

ART. VI. *A Supplement to the first book of the second part of the credibility of the gospel history. Vol. II. Containing a history of St. Paul, the evidences of the genuineness of his fourteen epistles, particularly that to the Hebrews, with the times when they were writ, and remarks upon them. By N. Lardner, D. D. 8vo. Pr. 5s. Noon.*

DR. Lardner's second volume of this useful work contains a history of *St. Paul*, the evidences of the genuineness of his fourteen *Epistles*, particularly that to the *Hebrews*, with the times when they were writ, and remarks upon them. It consists of four chapters, XI. XII. XIII. and XIV.

CHAP. XI. In this Dr. Lardner gives us a brief history of *St. Paul*, before his conversion, with a character of him. He then endeavours to settle the time of his conversion; which, according to the best conjectures he can form, in regard to this matter, must have happened in the year of our Lord 36 or 37. The Doctor imagines that *St. Paul* was born about the same time as our Saviour, whom he never saw during his abode on earth, not coming to *Judea* from *Tarsus* till after the period of our Lord's ministry. That he was made an *apostle* immediately on his conversion, first preaching to *Jews* at *Damascus*, *Jerusalem*, *Judea*, and other parts, and then to *Gentiles*. The doctor then gives us a history of *St. Paul's* travels and preaching, from the time of his conversion to his coming to *Jerusalem* from *Damascus* three years afterwards, from that time to his arrival at *Antioch* in the year 43. He then gives us an account of *Paul* and *Barnabas* coming again to the council at *Jerusalem*, and returning thence to *Antioch*, in the year 49. The doctor then accompanies *St. Paul* in his travels, from the time of his leaving *Antioch* in the year 50, to his coming to *Jerusalem* at the pentecost in 58, where he was seized by the *Jews*, and after two years imprisonment, sent to *Rome*, and there released in the year 63. The doctor is of opinion that *Paul* went to *Jerusalem* as soon as he cou'd, after he was set at liberty, visited divers churches, which had been planted by him, and then returned to *Rome*, where the christians being persecuted as authors of the conflagration which happened there, *St. Paul*, with many others, suffer'd martyrdom in the year 64 or 65.

CHAP. XII. In this chapter doctor Lardner confines himself intirely to *St. Paul's* *Epistles*; and having previously observ'd,

serv'd, that to know the order of time in which they were writ, must be attended with great pleasure, and will moreover contribute to the right understanding of them, he proceeds to settle the dates of every one of them; where he differs from *Chrysostom*, *Theodoret*, *Grotius*, *Wolfius*, *Mills*, *Pearson*, and other writers, he gives us his reasons for it, which are, for the most part, satisfactory. We cannot here enter into a minute detail of them, but refer our readers to the work itself, only subjoining the doctor's table of the epistles, in the order of time, with the places where, and the times when, they were writ.

EPISTLES.	PLACES.	A. D.
1. Theſſalonians,	} Corinth.	52
2. Theſſalonians.		
Galatians.	} Corinth.	} near the end of 52
1. Corinthians.	} or	} the beginning of 53
1. Timothie.	Ephesus.	the beginning of 56
Titus.	} Macedonia.	} before the end of 56
2. Corinthians.	or near it.	
Romans.	Macedonia.	about October 57
Ephesians.	Corinth.	about February 58
2. Timothie.	Rome.	about April 61
Philippians.	Rome.	about May 61
Coloſſians.	Rome.	before the end of 62
Philemon.	Rome.	before the end of 62
Hebrews.	} Rome,	} in the ſpring of 63
	or	
	Italie.	

The laſt ſection of this chapter is employ'd in an enquiry concerning the *epiſtle to the Hebrews*, wherein the author endeavours to determine, 1. To whom it was writ. 2. In what language. 3. By whom. 4. The time and place of writing it. As theſe are matters which have been much controverted among the learned, the doctor produces their various opinions, and then gives us his own, which is, that this epiſtle was ſent to the * *Jewiſh* believers

* To this opinion many objections have been raiſed, amongſt which this is perhaps the ſtrongeſt, viz. that the epiſtle ſeems to have been writ in *Greek*, but if it had been ſent to the *Jewiſh* believers in *Judea*, it wou'd have been writ in *Hebrew*.

‘ To which I answer, (*says Dr. Lardner*) that allowing the epiſtle to have been writ in *Greek*, it might be ſent to the believers in *Judea*. If St. Paul wrote to the *Jewiſh* believers in *Paleſtine*, he intended the epiſtle for a general uſe, for all *Chriſtians*, whether of *Jewiſh* or *Gentile* original. Many of the *Jews* in *Judea* underſtood *Greek*.

lievers at *Jerusalem* and in *Judea*, that it was writ † in *Greek*, and that there is no other reason to believe it wrote in *Hebrew*, but that it is wrote to *Hebrews*, that it was penned by the apostle *St. Paul*, which appears from the parity of stile or phrases in this epistle, and the other acknowledg'd epistles of that writer, and particularly from the conclusion, which bears a strong resemblance to the conclusions of *St. Paul's* other epistles: this, together with the testimony of many antient writers, induced the doctor to think that † *St. Paul* is certainly the writer of this epistle; lastly, the doctor is of opinion that it was writ either at *Rome*, or in *Italy*, near the end of *St. Paul's* imprisonment at *Rome*, or soon after it; before he removed to any other country: about the beginning of the year 63.

C H A P. XIII. The doctor's thirteenth chapter is employed in a disquisition, which we cannot think of any great * consequence, viz. whether the epistle inscribed to the *Ephesians* was writ to *them*. The doctor supports the generally received opinion, that

‘ *Greek*. Few of the Jews out of *Judea* understood *Hebrew*. The *Greek* language was almost universal, and therefore generally used. All *St. Paul's* epistles are in *Greek*, even that to the *Romans*. And are not both *St. Peter's* epistles in *Greek*? and *St. John's*, and *St. Jude's*. Yea did not *St. James* likewise write in *Greek*, who is supposed to have resided at *Jerusalem*, from the time of our Lord's ascension to the time of his own death? His epistle is inscribed to the twelve tribes scattered abroad. But I presume, that they of the twelve tribes, who dwelt in *Judea*, are not excluded by him, but intended. Nor could he be unwilling, that his epistle should be read and understood by those, who were his special charge. The epistle writ by *Barnabas*, a *Levite*, or ascribed to him, was writ in *Greek*. Not now to mention any other Jewish writers, who have used the *Greek* language.’

‡ One argument for this opinion is taken from the *Greek παρανομίας* in the epistle, or the frequent concurrence of *Greek* words of like sound, such as *καλῶτε καὶ κακῶ, — ἀπατῶρ, ἀμνητῶρ, — ἐπιβήσαν, ἐπειρασθήσαν — Σερμασι καὶ πομπῶσι. — μενεσσαν, καὶ μελλήσαν, &c.* which seems to be an argument not easy to be answered.

† To this opinion of the doctor's there are likewise several objections which he hath here fairly quoted, the principal of which, perhaps, is, the remarkable elegance in the stile of this epistle, so visibly superior to all the rest. *Grotius*, *le Clerc*, and *Jacob Tollins* look on this objection as insuperable: *Origin* endeavours to remove it, by advancing that ‘ the sentiments are the apostle's, but the language and composition of some one else;’ and our author's conjecture is, that *St. Paul* might dictate this epistle in *Hebrew*, and another, who was a great master in the *Greek* language, write down the apostle's sentiments in his own elegant *Greek*; but who this assistant was, is altogether unknown.

* *Nihil de Titulo interest, (says Tertullian) cum ad omnes apostolos scripserit, dum ad singulos.* Tertull. adv. Marcion. L. 5. C. 17.

that it *was* writ to *them*, in opposition to some * modern writers, who assert, that the common inscription is false, and that this is either a general epistle, or that it was sent to the *Laodiceans*. Our author produces several arguments in favour of the † present reading in our bibles, and particularly insists on the testimony of all catholic christians in all past ages, by which it appears, that there never was any notice or apprehension, for several centuries, of a various reading in the inscription of this epistle. He considers however, the † objections raised, and answers them severally: after which he concludes with observing, that opposition made to truth is often the means of establishing it; and that it plainly appears from all the evidence which can be collected on this head, that there is no more reason to doubt of the genuineness of the inscription of the epistle to the *Ephesians*, than of any other of the acknowledged epistles of *St. Paul*.

CHAP. XIV. In the fourteenth and last chapter of this volume, our learned author endeavours to prove, that the churches of *Colosse* and *Laodicea* were planted by the apostle *Paul*; though some are of opinion, that the christians there were * not converted by him; to prove that they *were*, the doctor observes, that *St. Paul* was twice in *Phrygia*, in which were *Colosse*, *Laodicea*, and *Hierapolis*; and that the accounts which *St. Luke* gives us of *St. Paul's*

* Amongst these are *Mill*, *Pierce*, *Wall*, *Benson*, *Weststein*, and some others.

† 'The present reading at the beginning of this epistle, to the saints which are at Ephesus, and to the faithful in Christ Jesus, is the reading of all Greek manuscripts, and of all ancient versions, the Latin, Syriac, Persian, Arabic, Ethiopic, and all other. It is altogether inconceivable, how there should have been such a general concurrence in this reading, if it had not been in the original inscription of the epistle.'

‡ The first and most material objection is, that there are in this epistle divers expressions not suited to the christians at *Ephesus*, where *Paul* had been twice, and spent three years, whom nevertheless he addresses as though he had never seen or been among, but only heard of them; "wherefore I also after I heard of your faith, &c." chap. i. 15. To this Dr. Lardner answers, that many other texts might be quoted from the epistle, that shew the direct contrary, and prove that the apostle knew very well the state of these christians, and was well acquainted with them.

* 'Some are of opinion, (*says Theodoret*) that when the divine apostle wrote this epistle, he had not seen the Colossians. And they endeavour to support their opinion by these words: "For I would that ye should know, what great conflict I have for you, and for them at Laodicea, and for as many as have not seen my face in the flesh," ch. ii. 1. But they should consider, that the meaning of the words is this: I have not only a concern for you: but I have also great concern for those that have not seen me. And if he be not so understood, he expresses no concern for those who had seen him, and had been taught by him.'

Paul's journies into that country, are sufficient to assure us, that he preached the gospel there, and made converts, and planted churches in the chief cities; that the church of Colosse therefore was most probably planted by the apostle Paul, and that the christians there were his friends, disciples, and converts, and so likewise were the christians at Laodicea and Hierapolis, none of which places were far asunder.

ART. VII. *The art of farriery, both in theory and practice. Containing the causes, symptoms, and cure of all diseases incident to horses. With anatomical descriptions, illustrated with cuts, for the better explaining the structure, and accounting for the various disorders of these useful animals. As also many rules relating to the choice and management of horses of all kinds, and useful directions how to avoid being imposed upon by jockies. Wherein some egregious errors of former writers are occasionally pointed out. By Mr. John Reeves, farrier at Ringwood, Hants. The whole revised, corrected, and enlarged by a physician. To which is added, a new method of curing a strain in the back sinews, and the anatomy of a horse's leg, with some observations on shoeing. By an eminent surgeon. 8vo. Pr. 5 s. J. Newbery.*

OF all the treatises we have seen on farriery, this, in our opinion, is the most rational, because founded upon the knowledge of the animal œconomy, and of the power of medicines, reinforced by the observations of experience. The author, in his preface, gives us to understand, that a physician of eminence revised his copy, and prepared it for the press; and that he has added such a just theory of farriery, as will probably throw great light on the art: he has also pointed out the errors of some writers, explained the operation of medicines, and animadverted on their nature and qualities.

The external parts of the horse are described under their proper denominations, by references to an elegant print affixed to the work.

Though the nature of our plan will not allow us to give a minute detail of these scientific books; and this is the less necessary in the present case, as the prescriptions in farriery have been often repeated with little variation; yet we shall indulge the reader with a few quotations, which may not only be useful, but likewise serve to give a just idea of the merit of the performance.

The properties of a good horse are thus enumerated. 'There is
' no man, though never so well versed in the knowledge of a
' horse, that is able to distinguish all their faults at the first view.
' Some things stand in need of examination more than once,
' otherwise there may be very essential mistakes committed.

' The thighs and legs should be clean, and free from every kind
' of blemish. The knees should be straight, not bending: the
' shin

shin and shank thin: the back-sinews strong, and well braced.
 The sinews and the bone should be evidently distinct, in such a
 manner, as to make the legs appear thin and lathy, not full and
 round. The pastern joints should be free from disorders of all
 kinds, never large and round, for then they may justly be sus-
 pected. Nor must there be any swelling near the coronet. The
 hocks should be lean and dry, not puffed up with wind; which
 you may know by laying your finger upon it, for the swelling
 will readily change its place.

With regard to the hoof, the coronet should be equally thick,
 the horn shining and greyish. When the horn is white, it is a
 sign of a bad foot, that will wear out in a short time. A thin,
 weak foot, that is, when the horn is thin, is liable to be spoiled
 in shoeing, and by travelling hard on stony grounds, by droughts
 in hot seasons, and by too much moisture in winter. The thin-
 ness of the horn will best appear when the shoe is taken off; for
 the verge all around the sole will appear thin, and the horse will
 wince at the least touch of the pincers. But as this is generally
 not permitted, you may conclude the same when the shoe-nails
 are driven high to take sufficient hold. The heel and frog like-
 wise often are very tender to the touch, and sometimes one point
 of the heel will stand higher than the other.

A strong foot has the fibres of the hoof very distinct, running
 in a straight line from the coronet to the toe, like the grain of
 wood. Some such feet will last very well, if care be taken to
 keep them moist and pliable: yet if they are neglected when the
 horse travels much, especially on stony grounds, or when he
 stands long in a hot, dry stable, they will be apt to go tender
 and lame, when there is no apparent defect in the foot. This
 happens from the foot being bruised by the hardness of the
 hoof.

The greatest inconvenience attending a hard strong foot, is its
 being subject to reefs and fissures, which cleave the hoof quite
 through, sometimes from the coronet down to the bottom.
 These clefts being for the most part in the quarter, seldom ad-
 mit of any other remedy, than extirpating the whole piece that
 lies next the heel.

A narrow heel is likewise a defect; though some horses feet
 are tolerably good when their heels are narrow, unless the foot
 is hot. When the heel is not above two fingers in breadth, the
 foot is bad. Both the feet should be of an equal size, and not
 flat or without depth. But if such a foot happen to be strong,
 the hoof smooth, the sole firm, and the frog not decayed, rotten,
 or fleshy, the horse will then endure the roads tolerably well.
 But when it is like an oyster, with many rings or wrinkles, at
 the same time that the sole is soft, and the frog fleshy and spongy,
 it is a very great fault.

The

‘ The heel should neither be too high nor too low. A high heel causes a horse to trip and stumble often, and to go unsteadily. And low-heeled horses, with very long, yielding pasterns, are very apt to have their heels worn quite away on a journey.

‘ When the foot is too large in proportion to the rest of the body, though good in other respects, such a horse, at best, will be weak and heavy, as well as unapt for brisk, vigorous actions.

‘ The hind legs should be free from the same defects as the fore legs.

‘ The head of a horse should be small, at least not too long nor too large, rather lean than fleshy. The ears should be small, erect, thin, sprightly, and pointed. His forehead or brow should be neither too broad nor too flat, with a star or snip. His nose should rise a little, and be well turned: his nostrils wide, and then he will breathe more freely. His muzzle should be small, and his mouth should neither be too deep nor too shallow. His jaws should be thin and sufficiently wide, not approaching too near together at the throat, nor too high upwards towards the onset, that he may have sufficient room to carry his head in an easy, graceful posture. The eyes should be of a middle size, bright, lively, and full of fire. The eyes are the index of the mind, and discover, in a great measure, his inclination, passions, and indispositions.

‘ The tongue should be small, that it may not be too much pressed by the bit. The bars should be sharp, ridged and lean, and then he will be more easily governed by the bridle. It is a good sign when a horse has his mouth full of white froth; for it shows that he will not easily be overheated.

‘ The neck should be arched towards the middle, arising by a beautiful gradation out of his breast and shoulders, diminishing as it approaches towards the head; the muscles should be distinct, and not too full of flesh. But this is no fault in mares, because their necks are commonly too fine and slender. The hair of the mane should be long, thin, and fine; if it be a little frizled, so much the better.

‘ His shoulders should be thin from the withers, and pretty long and well raised, with a gradual enlargement from thence downward, so as to render his bosom or breast neither too narrow nor too gross. A thick shouldered horse is not only disagreeable to the rider, but he sooner tires, and trips or stumbles every minute; especially if he has a thick, large neck at the same time.

‘ When the breasts of horses are so narrow, that their fore-thighs almost touch, they are worth little; for they have a weak fore-hand, and by crossing their legs are apt to cut; likewise in galloping they are subject to fall. A horse of a middle size should have the distance of five or six inches between his fore-thighs. And when he stands straight upon his limbs, there
‘ should

should be less distance between his feet than between his thighs near the shoulders.

'The body or carcase should be of a middling size, in proportion to his bulk; for when it is too small, the horse is generally weak. His back should sink a little below the withers; but the other part should never be too low, but always straight, unless as just mentioned. In this case, the fore-hand will rise very well.'

'The temper of a horse is a principal thing to be observed, but is not very readily known, unless to such as are greatly accustomed to their tricks. However, there are signs by which their dispositions may be pretty well distinguished; for a vicious horse generally lays his ears close to his poll, shews the whites of his eyes, and looks sullen and dogged. Some have a frowning look, and carry anger in their countenance, which may readily be discovered by those who have had frequent opportunities of observing them. They seem to stand in a posture of defence, holding up their heads very high, and advancing one of their hind legs forward, which they rest on their toe; as it were preparing to kick the person that comes near them. When a horse is very vicious, he pays no regard to the groom that feeds him, nor puts on a more pleasant countenance.

'However, some horses that are ticklish, will lay back their ears, but they have a pleasant look with their eyes, and catch hold of the crib. Some do the same from a playful disposition.

'A horse that is fearful, and apt to start, often endangers the rider's neck. It is a disposition seldom vanquished till he is old and useless, or harrassed by constant travelling, which renders all kinds of objects familiar. But this will be no absolute security, if any unusual sight should appear. This temper may readily be discovered by his crouching, creeping and starting.'

There are many other marks to be observed in the choice of horses, which we have not room to transcribe. He then gives a compendium of the anatomy of a horse, explained by plates that are pretty well executed.

After this summary, he proceeds to give a series of judicious directions for managing horses on the road, for preventing the diseases to which they are subject, and for the treatment of running horses: then he expatiates on the operations and method of cure, including bleeding and purging, rowelling, firing, gelding, nicking and docking. He next describes the diseases and their cure, the apoplexy, the staggers, the epilepsy, convulsions, lethargy, palsy, gutta serena, moon-eyes, spots, films, and the haw, bruises and wounds of the eye, pustules, abscesses, and ulcers of the cornea, colds and coughs, fevers of various kinds, the pleurisy and inflammation of the lungs, contagious distempers and epidemical fevers, strangles, ives or vives, asthma and broken wind, consumption, disorders of the appetite, cholic and gripes, worms, costiveness, lax and scouring, jaundice, hurts and strains in the kidneys, sup-

pression of urine, strangury and pissing of blood, daibetes, surfeits, hidebound horse, and mange, the farcy, critical tumours, swellings from external accidents, molten grease, the bone spavin, the curb, oplet, jardon and ringbone, splints, wind-galls, and windy-tumours, the blood spavin, wens, wounds, ulcers, glanders, the poll-evil, fistula in the withers, strains, lameness, narrow heels, binding of the hoof, and sand-cracks, quitter, running thrush and canker, grease, crown-scab and rat-tail.

The book is concluded with an appendix, containing approved receipts, with the following account of the method of curing a strain of the back-sinews, by Mr. Dale Ingram, surgeon.

For a strain called a clap of the back-sinews.

‘ First bleed immediately in the fetlock vein. 2. Bathe the affected leg with the warm blood mixt with salt for half an hour. 3. Foment the leg twice a day with flannels, squeezed out of the following whey made hot :

‘ Take a quart of milk, and when it boils add half a pint of the oldest and the strongest verjuice, in which an ounce of roch-alum hath been dissolved: let this mixture boil, and you will have a strong curd immediately. Strain off the whey and preserve the curd.

‘ This curd must be applied warm once a day as a pultice after the leg hath been fomented with the whey as directed. It must be bound on with a smooth roller. In about six or eight days the inflammation will be asswaged, and then the following styptic charge must be laid on.

‘ Take of the colcothar of vitriol, reduced into an impalpable powder, half a pound, and mix it by little and little with the whites of two eggs beaten to a glair, adding as much strong verjuice as will bring it to the consistence of a cold charge. Then spread it on a linen cloth, and roll it on with a bandage four yards long and three inches broad, taking care that every turn be very smooth. This charge fresh made must be renewed every twenty-four hours.

‘ Bleeding is designed to abate the inflammation, which always attends this accident when violent; to which likewise the whey will greatly contribute. The blood and salt will stimulate and cherish the sinews, and consequently prevent any farther flux of humours. The curd is a styptic, and will help to restore the elasticity or springiness of the sinews, and the cold charge will greatly strengthen the limb. Whereas, all oily greasy applications relax and weaken it, and therefore ought to be shunned. This method is likewise much better than a cure by blistering and firing, for this last method especially, is attended with danger, and may do much more harm than good. Besides, experience has shewn the safety and benefit of this practice.’

Country gentlemen and horse-dealers will find their account in purchasing this performance.

ART. VIII. *An oration, pronounced before a numerous body of the nobility and gentry, assembled at the Musick-hall in Fishamble-street, Dublin, on Tuesday the 6th of December, 1757, published at their unanimous desire. By Thomas Sheridan, A. M. author of the British Education. Wilkie, Pr. 1 s.*

MR. Sheridan, whose abilities are already well known to the public by his sensible and judicious treatise on British Education, hath in this oration given us some further thoughts on the same interesting and important subject, and though the plan here laid down is calculated for the meridian of his native country, the perusal of it may be not unprofitable to an English reader; we shall therefore with pleasure take this first opportunity of doing justice to the author, by a few extracts from this little performance.

Mr. Sheridan, after a modest apology to conciliate the favour of his audience, sets out with observing, that one of the chief sources of the miseries of *Ireland* is the number of absentees, which is greatly increased of late years by the swarms of young gentlemen who have been sent to *England* for education. The consequence of which must inevitably be, that by finishing their studies here, and marrying into *English* families, they make a perpetual alienation, not only of themselves, but of their families for ever from their native country. ‘ Thus is *Ireland* not only drained annually of its rents, without any return, but deprived of those members who have it most in their power to contribute to its advancement; and whose presence and encouragement are absolutely necessary to diffuse a spirit of industry thro’ the people.’ Mr. Sheridan then examines into the causes and increase of this fatal custom, which he attributes either to the views of future fortune proposed by parents, or to the want of good public schools in *Ireland*. ‘ It is obvious therefore (says he) that nothing can put a stop to that growing evil, whose consequences are so much to be dreaded by us, but such a reformation in our schools as will put them at least upon an equal footing with those in *England*. But if, at the same time, a method could be found out, whereby, not only that point might be effected, but our whole system of education should be rendered more complete, in every branch, than is to be found either in the rest of the British dominions, or in any part of *Europe*; no one will hesitate to allow, that this would not only put an end to all apprehensions of ruin, from the cause before-mentioned, but would be the most speedy and probable means of making this country flourish; of raising it to a state of honour, wealth, and power.’

The want of a complete education in *Dublin*, Mr. Sheridan observes, ‘ is owing to two causes; the first is, a neglect of that

Mr. Sheridan's Oration.

part of education which is preparatory to it; the second, a total want of that part which should finish the gentleman.'

' Suppose, therefore (says he) that these two defects were remedied; that the schools were put upon as good a footing as those of our neighbours, and rendered suitable preparatives to the excellent system of the college; and that afterwards a method should be found to finish the education of a gentleman more completely here, than in any of the academies abroad: must it not be allowed that this would be the most effectual method of keeping our youth at home; as there could be no doubt in such a case, but that the whole system of education here, would be more perfect than any in the known world?

' But if to this system there should be other studies added, of more importance, and real use to British subjects, than all the rest; if the study of the English language went hand in hand with those of Greece and Rome, and the long lost art of oratory were revived (the great utility of which I shall not now expatiate on, as I have already given my thoughts upon that point to the public) can there be any doubt that we should not only detain our own youth at home, but that we should draw numbers from different quarters of the world, to receive their education here, either in whole, or in part?

To bring this matter about, therefore, Mr. Sheridan proposes to erect and establish a *society for the improvement of education*. An improvement which our orator then informs us has been the study of his life, even from his earliest years. As the revival of the long lost art of oratory seemed the first necessary step towards this design, he endeavour'd to make himself master of it, and that he might add practice to theory he had recourse to the theatre, and for this very purpose went on the stage; where the assistance and instruction he was obliged to give to young performers threw new lights upon him, and became the means of opening to him some of the fundamental principles of the art, which once known, it was not difficult thro' time and application to trace the whole system. ' So that (says Mr. Sheridan) it is now some years since I could have undertaken to shew, that the art of oratory might have been taught in these kingdoms, upon as certain principles, and with as good a prospect of success, as it ever was by the rhetoricians of Greece or Rome; or as the arts of musick, painting, &c. are now taught by their several professors.'

' I am willing, therefore (continues our orator) to employ the residue of my life and the remains of my health, in doing the best service in my power to my country. But in my present situation I can no more venture to run any risks. Before I take any farther steps, I must first have an assurance, that if my plan meets with approbation, it will also bid fair for success. The best assurance I know of, would arise from the establishment of such a society as was before-mentioned. If that were
once

‘ once accomplished, I would lay my plan before them; which
‘ is, 1st. to qualify every young gentleman to make a figure
‘ proportionable to his talents, in whatever profession or sphere
‘ of life he shall make his choice, or into which his lot shall have
‘ cast him; whether it be the pulpit, the senate-house, or the
‘ bar; whether he seeks for glory in the field, or prefers the quiet
‘ of a rural life: 2dly, to qualify him in all the accomplishments
‘ of a gentleman to make a figure in polite life, and to assist him
‘ in acquiring a just taste in the liberal arts, founded upon skill.’

‘ For this purpose, therefore, a society composed of learned,
‘ wise, and honourable members, to clear away all the difficulties,
‘ and to build up an exact model, would save the grand national
‘ council much trouble, and give them leisure to attend to the
‘ more pressing exigencies of the state.

‘ If it be useful, by the encouragement of agriculture, to im-
‘ prove the insensible earth; by planting, and the arts of gar-
‘ dening, to adorn the face of God’s creation, shall the improve-
‘ ment of the conscious owner of the land be deemed not worthy
‘ of regard? shall the care of ornamenting the noblest work of
‘ God be thought superfluous? if the training of horses, dogs,
‘ and other animals for the use or sport of man; if the breeding
‘ of singing birds; if the rearing of curious flowers, be thought
‘ objects not unworthy the attention of many societies, established
‘ for those purposes, shall the rearing and training of their own
‘ children, be considered by parents as a matter of less import-
‘ ance? if it be laudable to encourage the liberal arts, shall it be
‘ a work without praise, to inspire those, for whose use and de-
‘ light these arts are encouraged, with a true taste and relish for
‘ them?

‘ If it be noble to erect stately structures, temples of lime and
‘ stone in honour of the Deity, shall it be less glorious to build
‘ up man? to raise up living temples to the living God, and make
‘ them worthy of his presence?’

Mr. Sheridan concludes his spirited oration with these words:
‘ Upon the whole, if the scheme appears chimerical, useless, or
‘ irrational, let it perish, let it be obliterated, let no memorial of
‘ it remain. But if otherwise, may the author of all good works
‘ inspire your hearts with an ardent zeal, to promote an undertak-
‘ ing which will redound so much to your own honour; which
‘ will be productive of such benefit to the rising generation, and
‘ hand down such blessings to posterity. May every true lover
‘ of his country, contribute all in his power to raise Ireland to her
‘ former state of splendor, when the youth of Europe crowded to
‘ her from all sides for education; when, like a lamp set on high,
‘ she illuminated the nations all around, when she had the glorious
‘ appellation of the Island of Saints.’

As Mr. Sheridan’s scheme is undoubtedly a good one, we
heartily wish him success in the execution of it. There is a no-

ble spirit already raised in the nobility and gentry of Ireland in support of this useful design, which deserves our applause, and at the same time merits our imitation.

ART. IX. *The principles of negotiations: or, an introduction to the public law of Europe founded on treaties, &c.* 8vo. Pr. 4s. Rivington and Fletcher,

AT a time when the science of politics is so universal, that every cobbler presumes to trim the balance of Europe, and intrigues of state are canvassed upon every cinder heap, this performance cannot but meet with a favourable reception. It is written by a very able hand; and is the more valuable, as the author recommends honesty and justice as the most solid foundations upon which political systems can be raised. We have often with indignation heard it observed, that states and statesmen were under an absolute necessity of practising fraud and deceit in their own defence; that the common rules of public right and justice were sometimes to be sacrificed to the interest of a community; that a sovereign was excusable in over-reaching his neighbours, and taking advantage of their weakness, for the good of his subjects; and that a minister might be a very great knave in his public conduct, yet a very worthy man in his private deportment. Such pernicious distinctions serve only to confound the ideas of right and wrong, to dazzle and perplex weak minds, and promote the purposes of ambition, villainy, and corruption. Justice is eternal and invariable, and its essence can never be distinguished away, as it is an obligation in private life; much more ought that obligation to prevail in contests or disputes, by which the happiness or interest of whole nations is ascertained. A prince or state has no more a right to retaliate fraud upon another, than a private man has to pick the pocket of a sharper who has cheated him at play. The English, of all nations, have the least reason to adopt those arts in their negotiations; for since the beginning of the monarchy to the present time, they have been constantly over-reached in all their political intrigues; and as this will be probably always the case, they may as well maintain the reputation of integrity.

The author of the work now before us traces the origin of negotiations, enumerates the events which have contributed to unite all the powers of Europe by a reciprocal correspondence, and then considers the object of negotiations. In the second chapter he considers the fundamental principles of negotiation. 'A prince born with qualities, (*says he*) which we call heroic, may, for some time, raise his nation above itself: he can communicate an unknown vigour to it, as a fever gives strength to a dying man; but at his death, his exhausted country feels only its weak-

ness,

‘ nefs. Such a nation, suspected by its allies, and an enemy to
‘ its neighbours, wants only a second hero to complete its ruin ;
‘ and a great man, in these circumstances, finds it very difficult
‘ to remedy some of the evils which a foolish passion for glory has
‘ produced.’

Speaking of commerce, he says, ‘ If we compare the fortune
‘ of England with that of the house of Austria, can we doubt but
‘ that a passion for war is the cause of the decline of a state, and
‘ commerce the source of its prosperity? Henry VIII. left his heirs
‘ only a part of Great-Britain and Ireland; and Charles V. divided
‘ vast provinces among his successors, wherein he seemed to rule
‘ over the rest of Europe. Philip II. inherits his father’s hopes,
‘ policy, and ambition. Elizabeth, on the contrary, resists the
‘ artful invitations this prince made her, of taking part in the
‘ civil wars, which ambition and fanaticism had kindled in France;
‘ and she stops the courage of the English, who were naturally
‘ inclined to believe it concerned their honour to recover the ancient
‘ patrimony of their kings. The one fatigues and troubles Europe
‘ with his eternal negotiations; he meditates only great projects
‘ of war; his armies are ever in motion: he fancies he reigns
‘ already over his neighbours, and still he finds it impossible to
‘ bring back to his yoke some of the provinces that revolted.
‘ The other makes commerce the principal object of her policy.
‘ The English sailed to the East-Indies, formed settlements in
‘ America, and on the coasts of Africa: they learned to improve
‘ the riches of their island; and in proportion as they multiplied
‘ them by their industry, they were respected by strangers.’

He tells us ‘ the Romans never engaged in a war that did not
‘ furnish their public treasure with funds sufficient to begin a new
‘ one, which enriching even the soldiers, who had a share of the
‘ plunder, distributed plenty to all the citizens. Such a people
‘ have a right to be ambitious. But, in our present situation,
‘ war is only advantageous to commissaries of stores, and some
‘ officers who think like them. Every campaign increases the
‘ debts of the state. The imprudence of our forefathers has left
‘ a heavy weight upon us, which we with difficulty support, and
‘ our ambition would complete the ruin of our posterity.’

This sensible Frenchman seems to be well acquainted with the
constitution of England. ‘ Public power in England is not divided
‘ into proportions, necessary to give the whole state a common
‘ interest, and constant conduct with regard to strangers. In the
‘ perpetual balance of it, between the prince who has a mind to
‘ extend his royal prerogative, and his subjects who endeavour to
‘ preserve their liberty; in the midst of the intrigues of some am-
‘ bitious men, who, by feigning to be attached to one party, en-
‘ deavour, in effect, to turn the public passions to their particular
‘ advantage; the interest of the nation should not be long con-
‘ sidered in the same light. By turns, the court and country par-

‘ ties prevail in deliberations, and each one constantly follows principles contrary to those of the party it has humbled. This is the cause why there are often convulsive motions in the body of the state; and this political conduct, ever varying, renders half their strength useless to the English.’

In this manner he characterises our illustrious ally the king of Prussia: ‘ There is a prince, who, though he conquered a rich province, believed not that idleness and pleasures were the term of policy and of victory. He corrects the laws, encourages arts and all talents, opens new gates for industry, and the commerce of his subjects; makes soldiers invincible by a learned and rigid discipline, of which his military courtiers give an example; and he manages his finances with as much œconomy as vigilance. Was it possible for him to transmit his genius to his successors, or to fix his institutions on a solid foundation, the court of Berlin, which, as yet, is but a power of the second order, would soon become the greatest in Europe.’

He gives us to understand, that queen Elizabeth was the first who thought of prescribing rules for the different passions that agitated the heat of Europe, and reducing them to a political system, by means of dividing Europe into states nearly equal, that their forces being in equilibrio, they might be afraid of offending each other. He says the prince of Orange, afterwards king of England, corrected her system, and presented it to Europe in a more plausible light. ‘ Instead of an equality among powers, which was only a chimera, and which could never hinder their ambition and hatred against each other, was it possible to establish it; he proposed only to limit the power of France, and, after having reduced this kingdom to the state in which it was at the Pyrenean peace, to keep it irrevocably fixed in it: to the end, said this prince’s partisans, that this crown and the house of Austria, taken up with their rivalry, may exhaust their ambition and strength upon each other, and leave the other states no cause of fear. One would imagine, that Europe was to be made a kind of amphitheatre, where all the princes might peaceably enjoy the pleasure of seeing two great monarchies, that dreaded each other, tearing each other to pieces. To perpetuate this combat, which was never to be deadly, it was proposed to assist the combatant ready to fall, and put him in a condition of appearing again on the stage.’

‘ The prince of Orange, without doubt, knew the springs that move the passions of men too well, to believe the subaltern princes would concern themselves any farther in the disputes of France and Austria, than was necessary to make them eternal. It was not hard to see, that this great system, which appeared calculated for maintaining the liberty of Europe, was invented to favour the particular fortune of its author; who, being only a citizen of a republic, had need of an army under his command,

mand, and to wage war, in order to raise himself, in some degree, above the magistrates and the laws. He was sensible of the weakness of his system, and foresaw that the pretended defenders of the balance of power would be often frightened at the rapid and sudden progress of one of the contending powers; that most part of the subaltern princes would be too timorous to espouse, in time of need, the interest of the weaker power; that some of them would be gained over, and dazzled by a present advantage; and that the others, through indiscreet passion, would soon consult only their hatred.

Our author seems to think that the English are as ambitious by sea as the French are at land.

The project of having alone the empire of the sea, and monopolizing all sorts of commerce, is not less chimerical, or less destructive, than the project of an universal monarchy on the continent; and it is to be wished, for the happiness of Europe, the English were convinced of this truth, before they learn it by their own experience. France has already repeated, many times, that it was necessary to establish a balance of power at sea; and has yet persuaded nobody, because it is the ruling power, and is suspected of having a mind to lessen the power of the English, in order the more surely to give laws to the continent. But if England should abuse its strength, and exercise a sort of tyranny on commerce, all the other states, that have ships and sailors, surprised they had not before believed the French, will unite themselves to them, and help to avenge their wrongs. If the English are obstinately bent on conquering North-America, they will force the French to turn their principal power to maritime affairs. They will waste their strength; and the French, who, by laying down their arms by land, will cease to be suspected by their neighbours, will deprive the English of many of their allies.

Our author lays it down as a maxim that France and England are the rival powers of Europe, and that other states are only subaltern: he likewise treats of powers of the third order; and takes occasion to make this severe remark on the conduct of our late administration. 'But what can politicians think of the manner in which the court of London made use of the superiority of their strength this last year? They gave the French time to make up a navy, and to send succours to America, where by their tyranny they forced the natives to revolt against them. Having exercised piracy, which was useless to their main design, unjust, and which should have made them odious, they thought only of saving Minorca, when fort St. Philip was besieged. The squadron they sent to the Mediterranean was but a weak succour; and a long series of faults engaged them, at length, to kindle war in Germany, which probably, by taking them up

' too

‘ too much on the continent, will hinder their thinking, as much as they ought, of their sea-affairs and of America.’

His observations on alliances are extremely just and pertinent; and though some of them, at first appear extravagant, they will be found very judicious upon recollection. ‘ The English, (*says he*) far from understanding their own importance, even in the year 1734, did not know that they themselves were the rival power of France. Two men, well known in Europe, (Sir Robert Walpole and Mr. Pulteney) spoke then in parliament, in the same manner as had been done in the reign of king William III. that it was necessary to maintain public liberty, and keep up the balance of power between France and the house of Austria.’ He affirms that since the peace of Utrecht, the house of Austria is become a subaltern power; and that England, by her situation, wealth, and commerce, has taken place as the rival of France.

After having recommended the commerce of husbandry, as that which deserves the principal attention of politicians; and enumerated the inconveniencies of luxury; he adds:

‘ Tho’ I speak but briefly of the inconveniencies of luxury, still I ought not to forget, that it renders even the riches useless which it procures for the state; it is the characteristic of luxury to impoverish the richest subjects, because their wants are still greater than their riches, when they give themselves up to a taste for superfluity and elegance. The state is obliged to manage their depravity; they cannot be of any succour to it, but by its borrowing from them at great interest, or by sinking the principal; and this fatal policy, which leaves no hopes to the poor of the diminution of their imposts, increases the taste of the rich for useless expences, whilst it completes the ruin of families.

‘ How far were the principles of the duke of Sully on commerce preferable to those of Mr. Colbert! at least I think so. But if he had all the knowledge necessary to pronounce a certain judgment on this subject, I should fear that there are but few statesmen virtuous enough to follow the footsteps of the first. If the lands be better cultivated; if a sort of abundance reigns in the last order of the subjects, nobody will take notice of it, or deign even to give attention to it. But if new superfluities are invented in a manufactory, they are set forth in palaces to public view; the minister who protects them is certainly reckoned a great man; and perhaps he has only given a fresh wound to the state.’

On the whole, we can conscientiously recommend this book as a judicious, entertaining, and useful performance.

ART. X. *A discourse on the nature and end of the Lord's supper: wherein is shewn, in opposition to Dr. Warburton, that it neither is, nor can be, of the nature of a feast on the sacrifice.*

Si quid asperius dixerim, id non meis moribus, sed illius insolentiae, qui bonos authores violat, ascribas; nosti lenitatem, at stulta est clementia duris verbis parcere cum istæ sit meritis deteriora. 8vo. Pr. 1 s. Payne.

AS every thing relating to a point of so much consequence and importance to a christian, as the sacrament of the *Lord's supper*, demands our more particular notice and inquiry, we shall make no excuse for giving this little tract a place in the body of our *Review*, and laying our author's arguments before the public as fully as the nature of this work will permit.

'It is a complaint of some standing in the christian church, that what our blessed Saviour designed to be as it were the bond of union among all his disciples, is become (through envy of the devil) the seed of dissension; and that, which was originally intended for a public testification of our agreement in one common faith, is by a strange perversion made the distinguishing badge of some particular persuasion; an instrument of discord; and the fruitful source of strife and debates: and that not through any obscurity which layeth upon the face of the ordinance itself, which, to those who are content to be wise not above what is written, is plain and easy to be understood.'

The author of the *plain account of the Lord's supper* (a tract universally read and admir'd) has there advanc'd that '*the Lord's supper* being an institution of *Christ* himself, men must seek in his words, and the declarations of his apostles, for all that is contained in it, or can be necessary to a due partaking of it.' In opposition to this doctrine, our author observes, many weak and frivolous arguments have been produced from time to time, and the same leaven still continuing, hath lately burst forth thro' a celebrated writer, who hath charged the author of the *plain account* with mistaking the nature and end of this sacrament, which, according to him, is not so much the solemn and religious remembrance of *Christ* and his death, as it is that we may *feast upon the sacrifice of the cross*, and thereby have all the *benefits of Christ's death and passion* conveyed to us. Whereas (says the author of this pamphlet) the sacrament of the Lord's supper was ordained, not for the *participation*, but the *commemoration* of the sacrifice of the cross, and of the benefits thence arising to the church of God.

Dr. Warburton asserts, that "in those ages of the world, when victims made so great a part of the religion both of Jews and Gentiles, the sacrifice was always followed by a religious feasting
"on

* Dr. Warburton. See his sermons, vol. ii. p. 54. 56, and 57.

“ on the thing offered,” [From whence he would infer, that
 “ since the death of Christ was a sacrifice, it must necessarily be
 “ feasted on by us.] Whether he be right or no in this assertion,
 “ we shall see presently: for Leviticus vi. 30. we read, “ no sin-
 “ offering, whereof any of the blood is brought into the taber-
 “ nacle, to reconcile withal, shall be eaten.” And Hebrews xiii.
 “ 11, 12, we read, “ The bodies of those beasts, whose blood is
 “ brought into the sanctuary, by the high-priest for sin, are burnt
 “ without the camp. Wherefore Jesus also, that he might sanctify
 “ the people with his own blood, suffered without the gate.”
 “ From which two passages of scripture, thus placed together, it
 “ appears beyond all possibility of doubt or contradiction, that the
 “ death of Christ was a sacrifice of that kind, which by the law of
 “ God was expressly forbidden to be feasted upon.”

In support of this argument, our author observes, “ that feasts
 “ upon sacrifices were indeed very frequent and familiar things,
 “ during the times he speaks of; but then the sacrifices feasted
 “ upon were of a very different kind from that, which the sacri-
 “ fice of the cross is in the scriptures represented to be; for this
 “ is therein set forth as such a sacrifice for sin [or sin-offering] as
 “ by an express law was forbidden to be feasted upon, as I have
 “ just now shewn ye: and the only sacrifices permitted to be feast-
 “ ed on by those, in whose behalf they were offered, were what
 “ are called peace-offerings, by which no expiation of any sort
 “ was designed, no atonement was intended to be made, no par-
 “ don of offences procured to the offerers: but they were common
 “ acts only of religious worship and homage, whereby they did
 “ acknowledge the Lord for their God: in like manner as vocal
 “ prayer and praise now are, which have succeeded to the material
 “ oblations of victims on the altar.”

If the *Lord's supper* be really as Dr. W. pretends, *a feast on the
 sacrifice of the cross*, “ it will follow that the death of Christ was no
 “ other than a peace-offering, by which no sort of atonement,
 “ propitiation, or expiation was effected; which I presume he will
 “ scarce have the hardiness to affirm: or if he will allow, that the
 “ death of Christ upon the cross was a sacrifice for sin, as St. Paul
 “ assures us it was, then it cannot be feasted on by us, because
 “ no sin-offering was to be eaten, or feasted on by those, in whose
 “ behalf it was offered,” The argument, therefore, stands thus:

“ No sin-offerings were permitted to be feasted on by those, in
 “ whose behalf they were offered.

“ But the death of Christ on the cross was a sin-offering, offered
 “ in our behalf.

“ Therefore it cannot be feasted on by us.”

“ Allowing, therefore (says our author) the Dr.'s assertion, viz.
 “ That the divine institutor of this holy sacrament, intended it
 “ should bear the same relation to his sacrifice on the cross, which
 “ the paschal supper bore to the oblation of the paschal lamb,”

“ yet

‘ yet it will by no means follow from thence, that therefore the
‘ Lord’s supper must have the nature of a feast on the sacrifice
‘ of the cross, because the annual paschal supper was no other
‘ than a memorial of the original passover, and of the benefits
‘ thence arising to the people of Israel, not the actually feasting
‘ upon that passover itself: in like manner the Lord’s supper now
‘ is a memorial, or for the remembrance of the sacrifice of the
‘ death of Christ, and of the benefits which we receive thereby,
‘ not the actually feasting upon that sacrifice itself, nor the real
‘ participation of the benefits thence arising to the church of God.’

Our author is furthermore of opinion, that St. Paul in the * comparison which he draws between the heathenish, jewish and christian feasts, did by no means intend that the *Lord’s supper* must be of the nature of a feast on the sacrifice. ‘ That St. Paul on the contrary *could not* consider the *Lord’s supper* under the notion, or as having the nature, of a feast on the sacrifice, without being guilty of self-contradiction. For St. Paul hath told us, “ that Christ died for the ungodly; that he gave himself for our sins; that he appeared to put away sin by the sacrifice of himself; and that he was offered to bear the sins of many.” From which and many other passages to be met with in the writings of St. Paul it is plain, that the death of Christ upon the cross was always considered by him to be of the nature of those sacrifices for sin, the blood of which was brought into the holy place to reconcile withal; and therefore by an express law was forbidden to be feasted upon.’

Our author concludes this pamphlet by remarking ‘ the *strange fatality* attending many opponents to the *plain account*, who while they were endeavouring to fasten, by forced interpretations, far-fetched consequences, and perpetual misrepresentations, a suspicion of Socinianism on the great author, have themselves either directly asserted, or by necessary consequence have implied, some distinguishing tenet of Socinus, or of his immediate followers, to be their real belief, or opinion.’

In our extracts from this little performance, we have purposely omitted, and we could wish that the author had also omitted, several severe reflections on the character and behaviour of Dr. W. such personal attacks we think in all controversies, should if possible be carefully avoided, and more especially, when they who take this liberty with the names of others do not think proper to sign their own.

* Cor. x. 14. &c.

ART. X. *Conjugal Love and Duty: a discourse upon Hebrews xiii. 4. Preached at St. Ann’s, in Dublin, Sept. 11, 1757. With a dedication to the right hon. lady Caroline Russell, asserting the prerogative of beauty, and vindicating the privileges of the fair sex.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Wilkie, The

THE sermon before us is ascribed in the daily papers (though his name is not in the title-page) to one Dr. *Brett of Ireland*. The popularity of the subject, and the very extraordinary manner in which it is treated, together with a most singular *dedication*, have so far exerted the curiosity of the public, as already to have brought it to a third edition. The great call for it among the ladies bidding fair for as many more. In the discourse itself there is nothing, in our opinion, (a few passages excepted) very remarkable, though it appears throughout rather to have been written by way of essay, in some periodical paper, than as a sermon: the levity and jocularly of it being, in many places, highly unsuitable to the dignity of the pulpit. Sense and absurdity, serious and comic, mirth and gravity, are indeed so oddly jumbled together in this performance, that we scarce know what to make of it.

The doctor sets out very gravely and solemnly, to inform us that the business of this discourse is, 1st. To assert the honour and dignity of the married state, 2dly. To shew in what way both the honour and happiness of it may be best secured: and to this end, after some common observations on the celibacy of *monks*, and the austerities of a cloister, he proceeds to take to task the other enemies to matrimony, call'd *libertines*, who endeavour, by banter and ridicule, to bring this state into contempt. In this part of his discourse we meet with a digressive encomium on the fair sex.

' It is plain, and it is happy mostly for the family where it falls out, that where that apple of gold, in a picture of silver, beauty and virtue meet, they bear an irresistible sway over the hearts of men: and where the heart is enslaved, the will is too fast chained to be free; for the same link will always draw both: how many impetuous and daring spirits, who have awed even their sovereigns, and made whole senates tremble, have been seen servilely crouching to draw the smiles of a wife; and the conquerors of the world, for these and other little endearments, fain to lay all their trophies and laurels at their feet, satisfied as with a full reward, as if this had been the end and aim of their toil.'

He then steps out of his way to refute lord *Bacon's* assertion, ' that wives and children are hindrances to great achievements,' and alledges, in opposition to it, that most of the great heroes in the world have been married men; this naturally leads him to the praise of wedlock: what he says upon this is the best part of his discourse.

' By this sweet and intimate union (*says the doctor*) how are the hearts of men cheered and comforted? every evil of life alleviated and lessened; every joy of it raised and improved: where the dispositions tally and are mutually sweet, it is so blissful, so truly

‘ truly paradisaical, that he who is in it would hardly desire to
‘ change it for another : it hath this, the greatest and only in-
‘ convenience, that it ties our affections too fast to the world, so
‘ fast, that we are with difficulty weaned of that affection, and
‘ hardly torn but by violence from it.

‘ Without this partnership, hardly any condition or fortune
‘ yields much content : a sour and peevish inquietude, which in
‘ the long run turns ever into melancholy, grows upon the best
‘ tempers in a solitary and single state, which the sweetness and
‘ cheerfulness peculiar to the sex either banishes or prevents. Be-
‘ tween man and man, the closest and dearest friendship rarely
‘ continues long, because they never can bring their obligations
‘ and interests to be the same. Here the ties of both lead one
‘ way ; and as the knot is indissoluble, so, for that reason, may
‘ the friendship.’

A little after this, which is all very true, and not ill express’d,
the doctor begins to be jocular, and raises our smiles by the fol-
lowing facetious paragraph.

‘ Men may not brook to be told this ; but as I am here luckily
‘ out of the reach of contradiction, I will tell them, that for the
‘ little virtue many of them have, they are indebted solely to the
‘ advice and example of their wives, agreeably insinuated at sea-
‘ sons when none other can reach them, and operating in a variety
‘ of ways that no words can describe ; nor any judgment but
‘ theirs, who are ever with them, and about them, could dictate ;
‘ as may be seen from the many instances of such as turn idle con-
‘ temptible fops, to the ruin of their affairs and families, who
‘ used to be tolerably sober and decent, whilst they had the
‘ awe and advantage of a *curtain lecture*.’ This is surely language
a little too jocular and familiar for the pulpit, besides that it con-
veys in one part ideas much too loose for the subject and occa-
sion.

The doctor then proceeds to lay down some hints to explain how
the honour of matrimony may be kept up ; here again he grows
grave and sensible.

‘ Let love (*says he*) tie the knot ; let hearts be joined as well
‘ as hands, and all the little incidents which are the common oc-
‘ casions of strife and vexation, will rarely happen, or if they
‘ do, find an easy remedy : where there is mutual love, there will
‘ be mutual desire to please, and desire will both beget and
‘ quicken endeavour : it will either prevent or extinguish every
‘ suspicious jealousy, dispose the party in the wrong to make suit-
‘ able acknowledgments, and the other grateful requitals. When
‘ asunder, it will inflame them with a desire to shorten absence ;
‘ when together, it will be a spring of lasting satisfaction ; they
‘ will part with regret, and they will meet with joy.

‘ But

‘ But still love must have esteem for its foundation, and virtue
 ‘ for its support, otherwise brutal lust will as well deserve the
 ‘ name; and every trifling incident will give it some allay: they
 ‘ who are cautious and discreet in their choice seldom find reason
 ‘ to repent: and wisdom in men, and chastity in women should
 ‘ weigh most in that balance, which is to determine their mutual
 ‘ choices; for the strongest bond of chastity and obedience in
 ‘ the wife, is the opinion she hath of her husband’s wisdom; and
 ‘ the strongest bond of the husband’s love, is the opinion he hath
 ‘ of her modesty and fidelity.’

The doctor then descends again into the familiar, and talks about wives clamors, and husbands going to taverns, and very warmly recommends *caressing* and *endearments*, as the best way to soften wives, and make them *obsequious*. The discourse then concludes very gravely and very properly with these words:

‘ After all that can be said, it is religion alone which can secure
 ‘ the joys and comforts of this and of every other state. Religion
 ‘ indeed will not raise love where there was none before, but it
 ‘ will always preserve it where it is: it will calm the mind, it will
 ‘ purify the heart, it will regulate the desires, it will correct any
 ‘ perversity of will, it will give good dispositions and confirm
 ‘ them, check evil ones and subdue them: it will make us mild
 ‘ and tractable, and sober and chaste; commence a kind of heaven
 ‘ upon earth, and lead to everlasting bliss in the heaven of
 ‘ heavens hereafter.’

Such is doctor Brett’s sermon, which, as he informs us himself, in an advertisement prefix’d to it, was greatly admir’d; many interceding to read or take copies of it: insomuch that he was oblig’d to print it, for the satisfaction of his friends; to which he was the easier induced, as it gave him the opportunity of paying * *no unacceptable compliment to lady Caroline Ruffel*, to whom it is said to have been dedicated.

This *dedication* is indeed a most uncommon and extraordinary performance, if we consider to whom it comes, and from whom it came. The prerogative of beauty, and the privileges of the fair sex, are no doubt very entertaining and agreeable subjects, but such at the same time as one would not expect to see tacked to a discourse from the pulpit, and by a doctor of divinity: but our surprise is still greater, to see the author in some parts of it shamefully * transgressing the bounds of decency, and addressing a young lady of the highest rank and distinction, as well as the most amiable and virtuous character, in terms which it would be as unbecoming in her to attend to as in him to dictate.

The

* See the Advertisement.

* We refer our readers to pag. xviii. of this curious dedication, beginning at, *The learned have distinguished, &c.*

The dedication begins thus,

'MADAM,

'There is an Italian proverb, which says that handsome girls are born married: the meaning whereof is not what hath been vulgarly supposed, that marriages are made in heaven: but that such is the power of beauty over the human heart, that when they will, they may.'

He then desires her ladyship to *look out* for a husband; and after a little flourish about the powers of *sense, beauty, and strength*, he tells us, that *man* is only a *puppet*, a meer passive instrument in the hands of *women*, edged and blunted, furious and blustering, gentle and tame, as their sovereigns will and direct. In proof of this he quotes *Ælian, Diodorus Siculus, Aristophanes, and Valerius Maximus, &c.* * who, each of them, tell us some story or other about the superiority of women, and their power over their husbands: from all which the doctor thinks he has a right to conclude, that 'from madam Eve to madam Pampadour' (strange language this for a divine) 'the sceptre hath ever been in the hands of *the fair*.'

'See (says our learned doctor) Henry, surnamed the Great: In the cabinet, how politic and wise: in the field, how persevering, valiant and intrepid! was even he the sovereign of his own will? no: but the servant of Madam Gabrielle d'Etrees: see him attending her in her accouchment, seasoning her gruels, and warming her flannels, doing all the offices of a valet or a chambriere: his soul, we must say, was undoubtedly in her hands, she could turn it whithersoever she willed.'

The following is perhaps the most extraordinary part of this extraordinary dedication.

'In the fifteenth century it happened, there lived a man in France, Alain Chartier by name; from whose lips so many Beaux mots, and fine sentences had issued, that Margaret Stuart, then wife to the Dauphin, passing one day with her attendants thro' a chamber, where the good man lay asleep, taking it perhaps into her head that possibly his lips might be as sweet as the words that came out of them, gently stooped and gave him a kiss.

'Whether

* Alex. ab Alex. tells you, (says the doctor) that his father, who by being a father had undoubtedly the advantage of good experience, never had this saying of Thales out of his mouth, and was ever twitting with it all who came in his way; thence proving, that whoever had a mind to be free, had this only way, to live single. Nor is this, Madam, by the way, any prejudice against marriage, for the same is true of a religious state; it also is a state of servitude: but both are sufficiently recommended by this, 'That the yoke is easy and the burden light.'

The doctor's application of scripture in this place, as well as in many other parts of this dedication, is shamefully loose, and borders very nearly, in our opinion, on prophaneity.

‘ Whether the good man at that time was in any such reverie as might give him a sense of his felicity, as the history is silent in this point, I know not. But this I know, that had I been Alain, and your ladyship the Dauphiness, though I had been master of the sentences, I was going to say, even author of the book of proverbs, I would have accepted this honour in compensation and full payment for the whole, as of more value than the annual prizes distributed by the academy of inscriptions and belles lettres, or even those more renowned of old at the Isthmian games.’

The doctor then tells her ladyship, that ‘ merit may as often be found under a band and a cassock, as under a sword-knot or feather;’ and desires, that whenever she enters into holy wedlock, some worthy nobleman of *Ireland* may be the *happy man*, and that he may be admitted the *priest* of *Hymen* to light the torch, and tie the sacred knot; assuring her ladyship at the same time, that ‘ in no part of his majesty’s dominions, true primitive * *Davidism* is in higher repute or more practised than in this island: which, for aught I know, may have been the origin of the title it once had of the Island of Saints.’

Enough has been said upon and enough quoted of this *surprising* dedication, to give our readers a proper idea of its merit. Most of them will probably imagine (as we do) that the author, however sensible he appears in some parts of the sermon, is a little *touched*; and will therefore, with the noble lady to whom it is addressed, and her illustrious family, pardon the wildness and indecency of it, and attribute it to their real causes, *dotage*, and *delirium*.

* In many parts of Ireland, this term is expressive of the meekness and subjection of husbands.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

ART. XII.

P A R I S.

IN the physical observations lately published at Paris, there is this very remarkable case of a woman who had a child come from her by the anus.

A woman about 31 years of age, who followed the camp as a futler, fell from her cart on the pavement; she was carried home insensible. When she came to herself, she had violent pains, a great flooding, and a fever, with all the symptoms of an approaching miscarriage, which however did not happen. She was blooded, and the remedies generally given in those cases administered. The accident went off; she was to all appearance well; and two months after she returned to the camp. She had now and then some renewals of her pains, but did not regard them. By the bones which

which came away, we judged it she was five months gone at the time of the death of the foetus, which we imagined happened at the time of the mother's falling from the cart, as she never after felt the child, and her belly fell.

Some months after, her pains returned with greater violence; her belly swelled, and a high fever came on, followed by a diarrhæa, with foetid stools, and every symptom seemed to indicate that she could not live long. On the 6th of October she passed, by the anus, a dead child, nature doing the work. The person who writes the observation, saw when he came, an hand and arm putrefied, and the flesh separating from the bones, without the anus; the head, equally putrefied, was in the passage; the trunk and other extremities followed by the assistance of gentle oily clysters, which were afterwards changed for vulnerary and detergent ones. As these humours, which sent forth an intolerable stench, were discharged, the patient was relieved, every dangerous accident was appeased, and though at first she seemed in a dying condition, she recovered daily; some gentle purges afterwards, and proper diet, restored her health in a little time. But she had one inconvenience left, which was, not being able to stand upright: she was obliged to walk with a stick, her body quite bent. Had I considered her complaint with all the attention I ought, probably I might have found out the cause of this uneasy situation, and cured my patient sooner. It was the under jaw which was disadvantageously placed in the rectum; and being whole was too large to pass, and did not come away till three months after, and then separated in two. This was the end of all her complaints, and she by degrees regained her upright position, recovered her strength and flesh, made the next campaign, and another afterwards, without feeling any inconvenience. She is just returned from that of Minorca, and follows her usual employ in the regiment, enjoying a good state of health.

The following article was communicated by Mr. Pugh, an eminent surgeon and man-midwife at Chelmsford in Essex.

ART. XIII. *A remarkable case in mid-wifery.*

I Was sent for on the 25th of August 1756, to a farmer's wife, of a thin phlegmatic habit, about five months gone with child; having undergone much fatigue in the harvest, she was taken with sharp pains and a violent flooding: on examining, I found the os uteri could but just admit the end of one finger; that it was quite rigid, not the least inclined to dilate. I took eight ounces of blood from her arm, ordered a gentle opiate, some restraining powders, with tinct. rosarum. On the 26th I found her much the same, only the flooding a little abated. She continued the same medicines and opiate at night.

On the 27th I found the os uteri quite closed, the flooding entirely stopped, having had no stool since the 25th. Hereupon I ordered an emollient clyster. On the 30th the os uteri was in the same state; notwithstanding she complained of continual grinding pains with much bearing down; her pulse was quick and depressed; was very feverish; she had frequent rigors, and was very weak. I ordered the saline mixture with nervose boluses, and a mixture with musk: her breast and belly fell, and she complained of a continual nasty stinking taste in her mouth.

September 3, the same symptoms, but in a higher degree, and a delirium at times, succeeded. I now gave over all hopes of her recovery, continued the same medicines to the 20th, when I was sent for in a great hurry: I found her in great pain, with a considerable flooding; she complained of an odd pricking pain, which she had never felt before: on examining, I found the os uteri quite closed, but she told me the pricking pain was higher up, on which I passed my finger higher up, and found something rough and hard about an inch and half above the os tinea, and was sensible it came out of the uterus. By moving it backwards and forwards, I got it between my fingers, and brought it away, and found it was the os occipitis of a foetus; a slimy matter followed of an extremely offensive smell. I ordered an injection to be thrown up three or four times a day, and she took a nervose mixture with tinct. valer. and castor, which method she continued till the 22d of December. Having passed half the bones of the foetus, was grown strong, and got about the house, but was again seized with pain and flooding; on examining, I found the aperture, by which the bones came away, quite healed; three or four small bones now came away by the os uteri. January 17th she was taken with a flooding. March 18 it returned. April the 22d again. May 10 and 20, June 7, July 30, August the 19th and 26th. She takes the drops of valerian and castor constantly, and keeps some of the restraining powders by her, which she takes when her floodings come on (I cannot call them her menses, as they have no stated periods, and are in too large quantities). At each return some bones come away. The 26th of August last, one of the scapulæ, and the os femoris, came away; she is strong and able to go about her business, but is very sensible she feels more bones in the uterus.

ART. XIV. *Disputationes ad morborum historiam & curationem facientes, quas colligit, edidit & recenset, Albertus Hallerus. Lausannæ, 1757.*

THese dissertations make up three pretty large volumes in 4to. and are chiefly the theses which students in physic publish'd when they took their degrees. Dr. Haller having already published several volumes of the same sort relating to anatomy and surgery,

surgery, was willing to have his work more compleat, by adding a collection of those which regarded the history and cure of diseases. To the two first volumes the doctor has subjoin'd a table, giving a short abstract of the contents of each dissertation; and his printer promises us, that a table for the third will be soon published, together with the remaining volumes of this collection. Dr. Haller, with some concern, tells us in his preface, that, upon reading over again the forty dissertations of which the first volume is composed, he was convinced that there was a much greater scarcity of useful pieces of this sort relating to physic than to anatomy and surgery. Of the truth of this we are fully satisfied from the perusal of these volumes; and indeed what can be expected of much practical use from young men who have had no experience? The accounts of those too, who in early life have had a little practice, are often to be suspected; and we have several instances in this collection, where, undoubtedly, things have been misrepresented, because they were seen through the medium of a darling theory. We apprehend this publication will be of small use to those who are acquainted with practice. Besides, their patience will be soon exhausted by the trite reflections and great number of frivolous quotations which look you in the face almost in every page. Anatomy and surgery are better subjects to exercise the genius of young men, than the practice of physic; and therefore we could have wished that doctor Haller had employed the time he spent in reading and selecting these theses from amidst the immense number he is possessed of, upon his own system of physiology, that so great a work might have had the sole benefit of his leisure.

The design of such performances is only to convince the professors of physic, that the authors have been at due pains in their studies; and when that end is answered, it is of very little consequence what becomes of them afterwards. We would not, however, be understood to mean that no pieces of this kind are worth preserving, or deserve a republication; or that there are none in this collection worthy of a reading. Dr. Deshais's dissertation in particular (to quote one from this collection) is very curious, and gives us several instances of the good effects of electricity in hemeplegias; but surely, unless very great care is taken in making a collection of this nature, the buyers of it will have little reason to thank the editor for his trouble. We are sorry to say that there are too many in this collection unworthy of that stamp of value which doctor Haller has given them. Who, for instance, can read Harmes's treatise *De causa mortis maniaci*, and Boenneken's *Biga casuum de mania*, without being obliged to call doctor Haller's taste and judgment upon medical subjects in question? In the first of these, doctor Harmes having given an account of what appeared remarkable in the body of a maniac, which was dissected in the anatomical theatre, tells us, that this case gives him an opportunity

tunity of inquiring into the true origin of the diseases with which this person was afflicted, and into the cause of her death. One would think this a very bold undertaking for a man who expressly says that he knew nothing of this woman's history. But wherefore should he be dismayed, who could call to his assistance 150 definitions, axioms, lemma's, problems, theorems, scholia, corollaries, hypotheses, &c. &c. by which indeed he has achieved all this, and a great deal more. Two or three quotations from this author may not be disagreeable. § 3. Delirare is dicitur, qui delirio laborat. § 7. Purulentum dicitur id, quod pure repletum est. As for corollaries, take the following; § 66. Quo magis vero vas quoddam distenditur, eo magis quoque pori ejus dilatantur. § 68. Quo magis vas extenditur, eo facilius rumpitur. So much for doctor Harmes, whose performance we think a very miserable one; and it is now time to return to doctor Boenneken, whose two maniac cases are no more than strong deliriums in fevers, which went off in a few days, by sweat, and turbid urine. The doctor ascribes the wonderful recovery of these patients to asses blood, which, however we will venture to affirm, that had the same quantity of his own been administered, the effects could not have been less remarkable. The prescription will perhaps prove entertaining, and therefore we give it.

R. Panni lintei sangu. Assin. imbuta & sicc. trium digit. latit. & unius digiti longi. Herb. Anagallid. fl. punice. (ob defectum Aquæ ejusdem herbæ) Manip. sem. Inf. in Aqua font. fervid. q. s. Colat. Rec. Uncias iv. D. ad Vit. S. sumatur ter die tertia pars.

His reflections on these cases are very many, but very trifling and absurd. He has given us an infinite number of quotations to help him out in the account he gives of the operation of asses blood, which only serve to heighten our contempt of his medical abilities, (he had been many years in practice when he wrote this) and put us out of conceit with such authors as were most familiar with him.

Dr. Haller, for whom we have a great regard, has had his time so much otherwise occupied, that he has not been able to attend to practice, and therefore had better have engaged some of his friends, who were more conversant with it, to have undertaken this labour. This collection, however, may serve students by way of dictionary, or as an index to the authors who have treated on the diseases which are here mentioned. If any body would take the trouble of collecting the first essays of men of great eminence, such as Harvey, Pitcairn, Mead, &c. the world would certainly be grateful to him, as the collection would be a subject of great curiosity.

Before we finish this article we will observe, that doctor Lambergen's famous treatise on the use of the solanum in cancerous diseases is in this collection. The woman whose case is most circumstantially

stantially related, took an infusion of above six drachms of this plant dried, in about six months time, and was cured of a disease in her breast, which was judged to be a cancer. As this disorder however, was but of a short standing, (the darting pains beginning when her menses had decreased in quantity) pediluvia and proper emmenagogues used to promote that evacuation, which had the desired effect. Opiates taken twice a day, for the first month, and occasionally afterwards; external applications used, in which were both mercury and opium; together with large vesications in the leg, foot, and hand (attended with great pain) from which a great discharge was made. We cannot, from all these circumstances considered, help concluding, that the solanum had not so fair a tryal in this case, as some people have imagined.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

- ✓ Art. 15. *The political Freethinker: or, a real and impartial inquiry into the causes of our late miscarriages, and our present melancholy situation. The second edition.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. Scott.

Servat multos fortuna nocentes.

LUCAN.

In tantas brevi creverant opes, seu maritimis seu terrestribus fructibus, seu multitudinis incremento, seu sanctitate disciplinæ.

LIV.

Ætas Parentum peior Avis tulit

Nos nequiores, mox daturos

Progeniem vitiosorem.

HOR.

THIS politician says, we have committed a triennial error, *Fighting when we should not—and blustering when we should fight.* Such is the text of his political discourse: but, though it be his text, we cannot think it as true as the gospel; for we do not remember that we have fought at all. Talking of the affairs of the continent, he tells us, ‘the only hero of the age is sacrificed by monsters,’ namely, *the Austrian eagle, the Gallic cock, and the Russian bear.*—Live and learn, as the saying is. We never before knew that the eagle, the cock, and the bear, were monsters. The potentates signified by these emblems, may be monsters of iniquity; but we cannot think that even a bear, though a brute, can be deemed a monster of nature.

Our politician with more reason hints, that if we had not rashly engaged in an unnecessary alliance with the king of P—a, the war in Germany would never have been kindled, and this nation would have saved above two millions already expended for its support. We are of the same opinion, and in divers other articles agree with the sentiments of the *Political Freethinker*.

- Art. 16. *An inquiry into a late very extraordinary physical transaction at E—n. In a letter to an apothecary at W—r in B—ks. By Ch— B—n, surgeon at Ch—y.* 8vo. Pr. 1s. J. Cooke and J. Coote.

This pamphlet relates to a private transaction, which is truly deplorable. It is the expostulation of a fond parent who has lost a darling child, (as he conceives) by the ignorance, self sufficiency, and double-dealing of the apothecary to whom the letter is addressed. It is warm, pathetic, sensible, and severe, and will not fail to interest the humane reader.

Ar

- ✓ Art. 17. *The causes of the present high price of Corn and Grain, and a state of the abuses and impositions practised upon the public in general, and the poor in particular, by the millers or meal-men; with hints for a law, for reducing the present price of corn, to prevent its ever rising so high for the future, and for correcting and preventing the abuses and impositions of the millers or meal-men, 8vo. Pr. 6 d. M. Cooper.*

The Pamphlet is dedicated to Earl Brooke, and seems to be written by a person who thoroughly understands the subject. He imputes the high price of corn to the practices of farmers and millers, who have of late years monopolized the grain; to the exportation of it, and to the great consumption made by distillers. He discovers the impositions of meal-men, in monopolizing the flour, in debasing its quality, and in exacting exorbitant profits. He explains the ill effects of the miller's buying corn by sample, and by more than statute measure, and of his selling meal by wholesale to second and third hands. In order to remove or rectify these abuses, he proposes that the millers should be restrained from selling meal, and confined to grinding and dressing only; and that the farmers should be compelled to bring their corn to market, under certain restrictions. This piece concludes with some judicious hints for a law, which we hope will engage the attention of the legislature: for the grievances, which the author means to redress, are become quite intolerable.

- ✓ Art. 18. *The nature of bread, honestly and dishonestly made; and its effects as prepared at present on unhealthy and healthy persons. With a sure way of discovering allum, and other mixtures in bread. And an easy method of making it in private families. To which are added, some thoughts addressed to the legislature for the relief of the poor. By James Manning, M. D. 8vo. Pr. 6 d. Davis.*

Here we have a warm remonstrance on the same subject with that of the foregoing article, dedicated to the society for the encouragement of arts and manufactures.

The author, after having drawn a short but pathetic picture of the diseases and deaths occasioned by adulterated bread, proceeds to explain the difference between the bread that is genuine and that which is sophisticated: then he accounts for the manner in which flour was first adulterated by meal-men. He declares, that the ingredients used for this purpose are bean-flour, chalk, whiting, slacked lime, allum and bone ashes. The bones commonly used for the occasion are such as have been thrown from servants tables into the dust-basket, and thence upon dunghills, where they are gnawn by dogs: after this, they are boiled to get out the fat by people who make a trade of it; and as they come from the coppers, they are burned to a white powder, which is often mixed in a very large quantity with the flour for bread: there is likewise another ingredient of a more mischievous quality, which produces suffocation. The bakers finding, by experience, that this bread occasioned costiveness, have lately mixed it with jalop; and this has been productive of diarrhæas.

His method of discovering bad bread, may be serviceable in families, and therefore we will insert it in his own words:

' The first requisite is to have a loaf of genuine bread made at home, as we shall direct hereafter. On comparison, this will be found mellow, soft, sweet to the taste, agreeable to the smell, and brown on the surface; more or less, according to the degree of baking. The view of this, with the sophisticated common bread, will shew the difference sooner than all words.

' Where such a loaf is not at hand, a French-roll will, in some degree, answer the purpose: for the lightness requisite in this kind of bread, does not admit the same quantity of the pernicious ingredients; and though far from pure, it will show the common bread in a very ill light upon comparison.

' If bread be browner than it ought, hard and crumbly, there is bean-flour mixed with the wheat, and probably no other ingredient. This is perhaps the most desirable bread that can be had in a time of general adulteration.

' If it be white and crumbly, there is probably bean-flour, whitening, and allum.

' If it be white and heavy, there is reason to suspect slak'd lime.

' If it be white, brittle, and close, mouldering into crumbs as it is touched, probably there is slak'd lime and bone-ashes in it.

' If it be heavy and brittle, whitening is most likely to be the principal ingredient. There is bread so loaded with this, that it will sink like a stone in water.

' If it be heavy, rough, and solid, there is reason to suspect jalop: for it is the quality of that drug to prevent lightness.

For a further analyfation take what follows: ' the regular method to detect the fraud is this: cut off the crust from a loaf, and setting that aside, cut the crumb into very thin slices: break these, but not very small, and put them into a glass cucurbit, with a large quantity of water. Set this, without shaking, in a sand furnace, and let it stand, with a moderate warmth, four and twenty hours.

' The crumb of the bread will, in this time, soften in all its parts, and the ingredients will separate from it. The allum will dissolve in the water, and may be extracted from it in the usual way. The jalop, if any have been used, will swim upon the top in a coarse film, and the other ingredients, being heavy, will sink quite to the bottom. These are the principal; and the pap being poured off, there will remain the chalk, bone-ashes, or whatsoever else was used, in a white powder at the bottom.

' This is the best and most regular method of finding the deceit; but as cucurbits and sand furnaces are not at hand in private families, there is a more familiar method.

' Let the crumb of a loaf be sliced as before directed, and put with a great deal of water into a large earthen pipkin. Let this be set over a very gentle fire, and kept a long time moderately hot; and the pap being poured off, the bone-ashes, or other ingredients, will be found at the bottom.'

He afterwards gives directions for baking bread at home, and employs the remaining sheets in sensible observations on the present villainous practice of ingrossing—The pamphlet we heartily recommend to the perusal of all those who wish well to their country.

- ✓ Art. 19. *A modest apology in defence of the bakers. Against a certain pamphlet, called poison detected. By Sampson Syllogism, a baker, 8vo. Pr. 1 s. Scott.*

This is a severe piece of irony against the venerable fraternity of bakers. But, indeed any sort of irony is too gentle for them, if the position on which this performance is founded, be actually true: namely, that the bread we eat is not made of wheat-flour, but composed of whiting, chalk, lime, allum and powdered bones. If this be really the case, it is a very serious matter; and even though these pernicious ingredients are not used in such large proportions to the flour, as the author of *Poison detected* affirms; yet if they are used at all, no punishment can be too severe for those villains who have thus contributed to the death and destruction of their fellow-creatures.—When we had occasion to take notice of the performance, intitled *Poison detected*, we expressed our abhorrence of such practices. We upon the whole, recommended that pamphlet to the perusal of the public: we therefore, are not a little surprized to find ourselves mentioned with expressions of acrimony, in this pamphlet which we take to be the production of the same author. He taxes us with having damned whole books, without one argument to support the sentence; but we are conscious of no such practices, except in a few productions which we found too wretched to bear perusal.—Whatever grudge this gentleman may have to us, for the freedom of our remarks, we shall always be glad to co-operate with him or any other person, in detecting and exposing those enormities that are committed against the lives of our fellow-creatures: and we apprehend, he would do greater service to the community by publishing the particular discoveries he has made on this subject, with proper attestations, than by issuing into the world general observations, let them be ever so poignant and apposite.

We understand from undoubted authority, that above a tun of chalk has been lately discovered in the house of a country miller, who had no purpose to serve by it, but that of adulterating his flour. We are likewise informed, that a gentleman found means to gain admittance into a place where he saw above sixty sacks of ground bones, and a great heap amassed for the same process, among which he distinguished several bones of the human body. Those bones are not used in this manner, until after the oil has been extracted from them for other purposes; so that what remains, is little more than earth and ashes. One cannot, without horror, reflect upon such an infamous practice: a practice that demands the immediate interposition of the legislature. How must a woman of any delicacy, relish her breakfast, when she reflects that possibly she maybe eating the bones of her own relations, nay even, (*horret animus!*) of her own children!

We are persuaded that these abominable adulterations, have owed their origin to the vicious taste of those, who in the choice of their edibles, sacrifice every consideration of health and appetite, to the silly gratification of the eye. They cannot eat veal until the natural colour is bleached away by repeating bleedings, so that hardly a drop of red blood is left in the body, and the animal is actually diseased. They will rather eat their coleworts raw, than run the risque of see-
ing

ing their colour faded by boiling: they will turn their eyes with loathing, from a loaf that has any resemblance in hue to the grain of which it ought to be composed; and thus lay the millers and bakers under a necessity of inventing impositions to deceive them. Be it their portion, therefore, and theirs only, to eat bread compounded of allum, chalk, whiting, and human bones.

- ✓ Art. 20. *The Secret Expedition. A farce. In two acts. As it has been represented upon the political theatre of Europe, with the highest applause, 8vo. Pr. 6d. Scot.*

A very sad farce indeed!—so very sad, that we shall not dwell upon the subject: though we cannot help observing, that the author, among his *Dramatis Personæ*, consisting of *Buzzard, Goose, Cuckoo, &c.* might have with great propriety introduced himself under the name of *Dotterel*.

- ✓ Art. 21. *A letter from a porter in the city, to the Lords and Commons of Great Britain, assembled in parliament at Westminster, on Thursday December the first, 1757. 8vo. Pr. 6d. M. Cooper.*

This facetious performance is a meagre pun upon the word *frank*, spun out to thirty pages. Now we will be so frank as to tell the author, on the supposition that he is really a porter, he never went through a more disagreeable piece of drudgery in the course of his occupation, than that which we have undergone in perusing his epistle.

- ✓ Art. 22. *An address humbly offered to the ladies of Great-Britain, relating to the most valuable part of ornamental manufacture in their dress, 8vo. Pr. 6d. A. Millar.*

This is a very decent proposal made by Mrs. Dorothy Holt of Ludgate-hill, for a small subscription of half a guinea, as an encouragement to her for the pains she has taken, and the expence she has been at, in inventing modern English point-lace for the use and wear of the British ladies. As this scheme is calculated for the advantage of the kingdom, and the discouragement of French manufacture, we recommend it heartily to the consideration and protection of our fair country-women.

- ✓ Art. 23. *Isabella: or, the fatal marriage. A play. Altered from Southern. As it is now performed at the Theatre-Royal in Drury-lane. 8vo. Pr. 1s. Tonson.*

We have little or nothing to say on this subject, but what is already said by the editor in his advertisement, which we shall therefore insert for the reader's information.

‘ Though the mixed drama of the last age, called *Tragi-Comedy*,
 ‘ has been generally condemned by the critics, and perhaps not without reason; yet it has been found to succeed on the stage: both
 ‘ the comic and tragic scenes have been applauded by the audience,
 ‘ without any particular exceptions. Nor has it been observed,
 ‘ that the effect of either was less forcible, than it would have been,
 ‘ if they had not succeeded each other in the entertainment of the
 ‘ same night. The tragic part of this play has been always esteemed
 ‘ extremely natural and interesting; and it would probably, like
 ‘ some others, have produced its full effects, notwithstanding the in-
 ‘ tervention

‘tervention of the comic scenes that are mixed with it: the editor, therefore, would not have thought of removing them, if they had not been exceptionable in themselves, not only as indelicate, but as immoral: for this reason, he has suffered so much of the characters of the Porter and the Nurse to remain, as is not liable to this objection. He is, however, to account, not only for what he has taken away, but for what he has added. It will easily be comprehended, that the leaving out Something, made it absolutely necessary that Something should be supplied; and the public will be the more easily reconciled to this necessity, when they are acquainted that the additions are very inconsiderable, and that the editor has done his utmost to render them of a piece with the rest. Several lines of the original, particularly in the part of Isabella, are printed, though they are omitted in the representation. Many things please in the reading, which may have little or no effect upon the stage. When the passions are violent, and the speeches long, the performers must either spare their powers, or shorten their speeches. Mrs. Cibber chose the latter; by which she has been able to exert that force and expression which has been so strongly felt, and so sincerely applauded.’

Perhaps the piece would have been more regular and uniform, if the comedy had been wholly laid aside, (especially as the humour is but flat) and the parts of the Nurse and Porter wrought up into pathetic scenes of tragedy: a metamorphosis which might have been easily effected. We likewise wish that the editor had heightened the character of *Biron*, who is indeed a good creature; but, we apprehend, deficient in tragical importance.

✓ Art. 24. *The Male-Coquette: or seventeen hundred fifty-seven. In two acts. As it is performed at the Theatre-Royal in Drury-lane, 8vo. Pr. 1 s. P. Vaillant.*

This performance consisting of two acts, though planned, written, and acted in less than a month, as the author gives us to understand in an advertisement prefixed to it, is not without merit. The design of it is to expose and ridicule a species of animals, which we do not remember to have seen before on the stage. A set of coxcombs, who take infinite pains to seduce the inclinations of the fair sex, without having the least design upon their persons; and are such rascals as to be ambitious of establishing their own reputation, by ruining that of their mistresses. Such a fellow is *Daffodil*, the Male-Coquet, whose character is detected, and brought to open shame by means of Mr. *Tukely*, his rival in the affections of *Sophia*, a sensible, sprightly young lady, on whose heart *Daffodil* had made some impression. The jealousy of *Tukely* is well sustained, and his character rendered so interesting to the reader, that we are pleased to find him rewarded with *Sophia*'s hand, in the *denouement* or catastrophe.

The author has taken occasion to introduce and satirize a society of *Gamesters*; if this name, bad as it is, may not be thought too much prostituted, in being applied to a set of wretches who throw away their money, without the least tincture of taste, liberality, or address. A club of these virtuosi are exhibited, in the act of betting on the most ridiculous wagers. One undertakes to hop upon one leg from Buckingham-gate to the Bun-house in Chelsea: another bets
Lady

Lady Dowager Perriwinkle against Sir William Whister : a third, engages to produce a man who shall live five days successively, without eating, drinking, or sleeping : a fourth makes a running match, of fifty yards, after dinner, between Sir Jollin Jolly and Major Calipash. While thus employed, they are joined by Dizzy, a worn-out debauchee, whose character is humorously delineated. He comes in just as they were talking of felling his timber, on the supposition that his death could not be far off.

Enter Dizzy.

* *Dizzy.* Not so little as you may imagine, my lord—hugh [*Coughs.*

* *All.* Ha, ha, ha,

* *Daffodil.* Angels and ministers ! what cousin ! we were got among your trees.

* *Dizzy.* You are heartily welcome to any one of them, gentlemen, for a proper purpose—hugh, hugh.

* *Lord Racket.* Well said, Dick. How quick his wit, and how youthful the rogue looks !

* *Daffodil.* Bloomy and plump—the country air is a fine thing, my lord—

* *Dizzy.* Well, well, be as jocular as you please ; I am not so ill, as you may wish, or imagine ;—I can walk to Knightsbridge in an Hour, for a hundred pound.

* *Lord Racket.* I bet you a hundred of that, Dizzy.

* *Daffodil.* I'll lay you a hundred, Dick, that I drive a sow and pigs to your lodgings, before you can get there.

* *Dizzy.* Done, I say ; [*draws his purse.*] Done—two hundred—done—three.

* *Lord Racket.* I'll take Dizzy, against your sow and pigs.

* *Sir William.* I take the field against Dizzy.

* *Lord Racket.* Done.

* *Spinner.* Done.

* *Dizzy.* Damn your sow and pigs ; I am so sick with the thoughts of running with them, that I shall certainly faint—

* [*smells to a bottle*—hugh, hugh—

* *Daffodil.* Cousin Dizzy can't bear the mention of pork—he hates it—I knew it would work. [*Aside to the rest.*

* *Dizzy.* I wish you had not mention'd it—I can't stay—damn your sow and pigs !—Here, waiter, call a chair—damn your sow and pigs !—hugh, hugh. [*Exit Dizzy.*

* *Daffodil.* Poor Dizzy—what a passion he is in !—Ha, ha, ha.

* *Lord Racket.* The woods are yours, George ; you may whet the axe—Dizzy won't live a month.

* *Daffodil.* Pooh, this is nothing—he was always weakly—

* *Sir William.* 'Tis a family misfortune, Daffodil.

Enter Waiter.

* *Waiter.* Mr. Dizzy, gentlemen, dropp'd down at the stair foot, and the cook has carried him behind the bar.

* *Daffodil.* Lay him upon a bed, and he'll come to himself.

[*Exit Waiter.*

* *Lord Racket.* I'll bet fifty pound, that he don't live till morning.

* *Sir William.* I'll lay six to four, he don't live a week.

* *Daffodil.* I'll take your fifty pound.

* *Spinner.* I'll take your lordship again.

* *Lord*

- * *Lord Racket.* Done, with you both.
 * *Sir Tan-Tivy.* I'll take it again.
 * *Lord Racket.*] Done, done, done ;—but I bar all assistance to
 * him—not a physician, or surgeon sent for—or I am off.
 * *Daffodil.* No, no ; we are upon honour——there shall be none,
 * else it would be a bubble-bet—There shall be none.
 * *Sir William.* If I were my lord, now, the physicians should at-
 * tend him.
 Enter waiter, with a letter.
 * *Waiter.* A letter for his honour—— [Gives it to Daff.
 [Daffodil reads it to himself.]
 * *Sir William.* Daffodil, remember the first of April—and let the
 * women alone.
 * *Daffodil.* Upon my soul you have hit it—'tis a woman, faith—
 * something very particular, and if you are in spirits for a scheme—
 * *Lord Racket.* Ay, ay ; come, come ; a scheme, a scheme !
 * *Daffodil.* There then, have among you. [Throws the letter upon the table.
 * *Lord Racket reads, all looking on.]* Hum—' " If the liking your
 * person be a sin, what woman is not guilty ?—hum, hum—at the
 * end of the Bird-cage Walk—about seven—where the darkness and
 * privacy will befriend my blushes ; I will convince you, what trust
 * I have in your secrecy and honour—yours,
 INCOGNITA."
 * *Daffodil.* Will you go ?
 * *Lord Racket.* What do you propose ?
 * *Daffodil.* To go——If after I have been with her half an hour,
 * you'll come upon us, and have a blow up.
 * *Sir William.* There's a gallant for you !
 * *Daffodil.* Prithee, Sir William, be quiet—must a man be in love
 * with every woman that invites him !
 * *Sir William.* No ; but he should be honourable to 'em, George
 * —and rather conceal a woman's weakness, than expose it——
 * I hate this work—so, I'll go to the Coffee-house. [Exit Sir William.
 * *Lord Racket.* Let him go—don't mind him, George ; he's mar-
 * ried, and past fifty—this will be a fine frolic—devilish high——
 * *Daffodil.* Very !—well, I'll go and prepare myself—put on my
 * furtout, and take my chair to Buckingham-gate—I know the very
 * spot.
 * *Lord Racket.* We'll come with flambeaux—you must be surprized,
 * and——
 * *Daffodil.* I know what to do—here, waiter, waiter ;
 * *Enter waiter.* How does Cousin Dizzy ?
 * *Waiter.* Quite recovered, sir ;—he is in the Phoenix, with two
 * ladies, and has ordered a boiled chicken and jellies.
 * *Lord Racket.* There's a blood for you !—without a drop in his
 * veins.
 * *Daffodil.* Do you stay with him, then, till I have secured my
 * lady : and in half an hour from this time come away, and bring
 * Dizzy with you.
 * *Lord Racket.* If he'll leave the ladies—Don't the Italian marquis
 * dine with us to-morrow ?
 * *Daffodil.* Certainly.

* Lord

' Lord Racket. Well, do you mind your business—and I'll speak to the cook to shew his genius.—Allons ! [Exit. Daff.]

' Lord Racket. Tom, bid the cook attend me to-morrow morning, on special affairs—— [Exit Lord Racket, &c.]

' 2d Waiter. I shall, my lord.'

What follows is extremely ludicrous. The waiters are spoiled by the bad company they attend, and infected with their itch of betting.

' 1st Waiter. I'll lay you, Tom, five six-pences to three, that my lord wins his bet with his honour Daffodil.

' 2d Waiter. Done with you Harry—I'll take your half crown to eighteen-pence—— [Bell rings within.]

' 1st Waiter. Coming, fir;—I'll make it shillings, Tom.

' 2d Waiter. No, Harry, you've the best on't. [Bell rings.]

' Coming, fir. I'll take five shillings to two. [Bell rings.] Coming, fir——

' 1st Waiter. Coming, fir——No, five to three.

' 2d Waiter. Shillings?——Coming, fir.

' 1st Waiter. No—Six-pences.

' 2d Waiter. Done—Six pences. [Bell rings.] Here, fir.

' 1st Waiter. And done. [Bell rings.] Coming, fir.' [Exeunt.]

The dialogue is spirited and easy, and the prologue written with that tune and facetiousness which distinguish the productions of Mr. Garrick.

- ✓ Art. 25. *A sixth letter to the people of England, on the progress of national ruin; in which it is shewn, that the present grandeur of France, and calamities of this nation, are owing to the influence of Hanover on the councils of England*, 8vo. Pr. 2s. J. Morgan.

He that thinks he can extract entertainment from an extravagant rhapsody composed of nonsense, treason, and vulgar abuse, may lay out two shillings in the purchase of this pamphlet.

We in charity believe the author has really lost his senses; and hope, that instead of mounting the pillory, of which he seems to be so ambitious, he will attract the notice of some benevolent christian, who will provide him lodging and proper attendance in Moorfields.—By the blessing of heaven, and the care of Dr. Battie, he may yet become good for something in his day and generation.

- ✓ Art. 26. *Memoirs of the principal transactions of the last war between the English and French in North America. From the commencement of it in 1744, to the conclusion of the treaty at Aix la Chapelle. Containing in particular an account of the importance of Nova Scotia and the island of Cape Breton to both nations*, 8vo. Pr. 1s. 6d. R. Dodsley.

This pamphlet is dedicated to the duke of Newcastle, as to an indefatigable patriot unwearied in his counsels for the welfare of the nation; and seems indeed to be written with a view to vindicate and extol the conduct of a gentleman, who was lately governor of the Massachusetts in North-America.

As the importance of Cape-Breton is but little understood, in this kingdom, we shall insert the author's account of it, for the instruction of the reader. ' This island is the center and protection of the French fishery: and of what value that has been to them will appear by the following computation taken of it from persons intimately

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‘ mately acquainted with every branch of it, according to the state in which it was carried on the year before the war.

‘ According to this computation, the quantity of their fish caught that year was 1,149,000 quintals of dry fish, and 3,900,000 mud-fish; the value of both which, including $3,116\frac{1}{4}$ ton of train oil drawn from the blubber, amounts to 926,577 l. 10 s. according to the prime cost of the fish at Newfoundland; and with the addition of its freight to the several markets, where it is sold, makes 949,192 l. 10 s. sterling; and, if to this is added the consumption, which is made of their coarse woollens by the men employed in the fishery, reckoning for each a blanket, watch-coat, rug, pea-jacket, &c. in the whole 30 s. per man, as also the brandy they consume, together with the canvas, cordage, nets, hooks, grapplings, anchors, &c. that the ships and shallops of this fishery must expend at sea and on shore, the value of it will amount at least to one milling sterling per annum, at which it is generally computed.

‘ But in order to form a just estimate of the value of this branch of trade to the French, the consideration of its beneficial consequences should be taken in; these consist principally in the following articles:

‘ 1st, The train oil produced by it is necessary to the French in their woollen manufactory; in which they have already rival’d us with too much success; and their sugar colonies abroad, which cannot do without it, are supplied with it from France out of this fishery.

‘ 2dly, The trade it opens for them into the Mediterranean, and all the Roman catholic states, where they carry their fish to market, and by the means of it force a vent for other French manufactures; which has been found so beneficial to their commercial interest, that they have been indefatigable in the cultivation of it, sparing no pains nor cost, and using every art to monopolize it; for which purpose, from the beginning they have used their utmost endeavours in time of war between the two nations, to procure a neutrality in North America, so far as relates to the fishery there; that they might even then carry it on, and prosecute their voyages unmolested.

‘ 3dly, The great increase of their navigation and seamen arising from this fishery; in which 564 ships, besides shallops, and 27,500 seamen are employed; circumstances, especially the latter, which considered with regard to their maritime force, are of themselves as valuable to France as the revenue of the fishery itself: well therefore might pere Charlevoix in his history of New France observe, “That this fishery was a more valuable source of wealth and power to France, than even the mines of Peru or Mexico would be.”

‘ And this great branch of trade may be said to depend upon their possession of the island of cape Breton, as it is impossible for them to carry it on without some convenient harbour of strength to supply and protect it; and Louisbourg is the only one, they have in this part of the Atlantic ocean.

‘ Besides the fishery, there are likewise other advantages which arise to the French from their possession of this island; France has not one sea-port for the relief and shelter of her trading-ships either to, or from the East or West-Indies open to them any where in North-America, to the northward of the river Mississippi, except Louisbourg; and of consequence, that whole trade would be exposed to the English privateers from the northern colonies in time of war,

‘ without

without any place to retreat to ; and in time of peace, they would be without any sea-port they can call their own, or lay any pretensions to in those seas ; but Louisbourg serves them as an harbour for their ships employed in this trade to resort to for wood and water, to clean or repair, for convoy from thence to Old-France, and on occasion of any distress ; as it likewise does to their vessels to and from Canada, by having the cover and command of great part of the gulf of St. Lawrence ; without which protection and retreat their trade from thence, and even the country itself, would not be worth the expence which France is at for the maintenance of them.

To all this must be added, that the possession of this island puts it into their power to annoy the trade of the British northern colonies in time of war with their privateers from this harbour, to so great a degree, that it has ever been called by the English, the Dunkerque of North-America.

What follows is a detail of the steps taken by governor Shirley for the preservation of Annapolis in Nova-Scotia ; and of the expedition against Louisbourg in the year 1745, when it was reduced by the English forces : an expedition, the plan of which is here ascribed to the governor ; though we have heard it often asserted, that the honour of the original scheme is due to a gentleman of the name of *Auchmuty*. But, whosoever planned this expedition, we will venture to say, that notwithstanding all the encomiums with which the men of New-England have been extolled for their prowess on this occasion, they might have continued before Louisbourg, even longer than the Greeks remained before Troy, without seeing the inside of it (except as prisoners) had not they been assisted by the Squadron under the command of Mr. Warren, and the body of marines which it afforded. This circumstance we rather mention, as the Americans arrogated to themselves the whole glory and advantage of the conquest, without doing justice to their brethren of Old England : an affront the more provoking, as those very people were so liberally overpaid by the British parliament, for the expence and trouble they had incurred in this service.

✓ Art. 27. *The report of the general officers, appointed by his majesty's warrant of the first of November 1757, to enquire into the causes of the failure of the late expedition to the coasts of France. To which is prefixed, a copy of his majesty's warrant directing the said inquiry. With an appendix, containing the papers referred to in the said report. Published by authority. 8vo. Pr. 1 s. 6 d. A Millar.*

We think it needless to specify the evidence of every individual examined on this occasion, but leave the reader to judge of the whole from the following report.

The following report to his majesty, prepared agreeable to the resolutions of the board at the last meeting, being laid before them, was approved and signed.

May it please your Majesty,

We the underwritten general-officers of the army, in obedience to your majesty's warrant, which bears date the 1st day of this present month, commanding us strictly to examine into the causes of the failure of the late expedition to the coasts of France, and to report a state thereof, as it should appear to us, together with our

VOL. V. Jan. 1758.

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‘ opinion thereupon, have, at several meetings, perused and considered your majesty’s orders and instructions, as transmitted to us by the right honourable Mr. Pitt, your majesty’s principal secretary of state, together with sundry letters and other papers therewith transmitted, and have heard and examined lieutenant general Sir John Mordaunt, the commander in chief of the land forces, and other principal officers employed on the said expedition, with such witnesses as either of them desired, and also such other persons as seemed to us most likely to give any material information; and in order that your majesty may be fully possessed of every circumstance, which has appeared in the course of this inquiry, we beg leave to lay before your majesty the whole of our examination, as contained in the minutes of our proceedings to this our report annexed: and upon the most diligent and careful review of the whole matter, we do, in farther obedience to your royal command, most humbly report to your majesty the principal causes of the failure of the said expedition, as they appear to us, *viz.*

‘ It appears, that one cause of the expedition having failed, is the not attacking fort Fouras by sea, at the same time that it would have been attacked by land, agreeable to the first design, which certainly must have been of the greatest utility towards carrying your majesty’s instructions into execution. It was at first resolved by Sir Edward Hawke (Thierry the pilot of the *Magnanime* having undertaken the safe conduct of a ship to fort Fouras for that purpose) but afterwards laid aside, upon the representation of vice-admiral Knowles, that the *Barfleur*, the ship designed for that service, was on ground, at the distance of between four and five miles from the shore; but as neither Sir Edward Hawke, nor the pilot, could attend to give any information upon that head, we cannot presume to offer any certain opinion thereupon.

‘ We conceive another cause of the failure of the expedition to have been, that, instead of attempting to land, when the report was received on the 24th of September from rear-admiral Broderick and the captains, who had been sent out to sound and reconnoitre, a council of war was summoned and held on the 25th, in which it was unanimously resolved not to land, as the attempt upon Rochefort was neither adviseable nor practicable; but it does not appear to us, that there were then, or at any time afterwards, either a body of troops or batteries on the shore, sufficient to have prevented the attempting a descent, in pursuance of the instructions signed by your majesty: neither does it appear to us, that there were any sufficient reasons to induce the council of war to believe, that Rochefort was so far changed in respect of its strength, or posture of defence, since the expedition was first resolved on in England, as to prevent all attempts of an attack upon the place, in order to burn and destroy the docks, magazines, arsenals, and shipping, in obedience to your majesty’s commands.

‘ And we think ourselves obliged to remark upon the council of war of the 28th of September, that no reason could have existed sufficient to prevent the attempt of landing the troops previous to that day, as the council then unanimously resolved to land with all possible dispatch.

‘ We

‘ We beg leave also to make one other observation ; that after its
‘ being unanimously resolved to land in the council of war of the
‘ 28th, the resolution was taken of returning to England, without
‘ any regular or general meeting of the said council : but as that
‘ whole operation was of so inconsiderable a nature, we do not offer
‘ this to your majesty as a cause of the failure of the expedition, since
‘ we cannot but look upon the expedition as having failed, from the
‘ time the great object of it was laid aside in the council of war
‘ of the 25th.

‘ All which is most humbly submitted to your majesty’s wisdom.

Privy-Garden,
21st November, 1757.

MARLBOROUGH.
GEORGE SACKVILLE.
JOHN WALDEGRAVE.

A true copy,
CHARLES GOULD,
Deputy judge-advocate-general.’

- ✓ Art. 28. *Candid reflections on the report (as published by authority) of the general-officers, appointed by his majesty’s warrant of the first of November last, to enquire into the causes of the failure of the late expedition to the coasts of France. In a letter to a friend in the country. 8vo. Pr. 1s. Hooper and Morley.*

This is a laboured defence of the generals employed in the late expedition, calculated to remove the impressions which might have been made on the minds of the people, by the report of the board of inquiry.

The reflections, far from deserving the epithet of *candid*, are, in our opinion, partial and invidious, founded upon a desire of justifying the g——ls of the ex——n, at the expence of the minister by whom it was planned. Without entering into a discussion of particulars, we shall only observe, that the reader will find his account in comparing this performance with the following,—namely,

- ✓ Art. 29. *The expedition against Rochefort fully stated and considered. In a letter to the right honourable the author of the candid reflexions on the report of the general officers, &c. By a country gentleman. 8vo. Pr. 1s. 6d. M. Cooper.*

We will venture to recommend this pamphlet as a piece written by a masterly hand, abounding with spirited remarks and irrefragable arguments ; a piece that refutes the former in every article, justifies the report of the general court of inquiry, and proves the practicability of the scheme for the execution of which the late armament was equipped. By this we likewise understand, that the *candid reflections* were the productions of that worthy cabal which heretofore obliged the public with the paper called the *Test*, and exerted themselves with such industry in embroiling that administration from which they had been so justly expelled.

Though a circumstantial detail of every pamphlet that is published would trespass upon the plan, and transgress the limits we have proposed to ourselves in this undertaking, we will insert one passage of this performance, by which the reader will be enabled to judge, not

only of the writer's capacity, but also of the expedition which hath been so much and so variously canvassed by the people of this nation.

‘ It appears from the evidence of vice-admiral Knowles, Enq. p. 44, that the whole affair of this attack upon Fouras was delegated by Sir Edward Hawke to his inspection, and that Sir Edward had proceeded so far in the execution of the plan, as to direct his secretary to begin an order to lighten the Barfleur for that purpose. But this was laid aside, upon the remonstrances of captain Graves and vice-admiral Knowles, that the Barfleur was aground at between four and five miles distance from the shore; that then Sir Edward Hawke ordered him to try to carry the bomb-ketches in, which he did, and run them aground at more than two miles and two-thirds of a mile distance from Fort-Fouras, where they were likely to have been taken by row-boats: that then he run the Coventry frigate a-ground five times within the hour, at a greater distance from the shore than the bomb-ketch. That then (and it seems not till then) he sent his master to sound, and found that at two miles distance from the fort, there was but six foot water at high-water. All these notable exploits were performed by vice-admiral Knowles; the same, who, it is said, advised Sir Edward Hawke not even to enter the road of Basque, lest he should be bombarded; the same, one has formerly heard and read of in courts-martial; the same, who on a late p——y inquiry, had the happiness to boast such peculiar protection and countenance from you, Sir; the same, who (as I have heard) detained the squadron two days in sight of the French coast, because he had sent away the pilot, destined to conduct it, upon a chase after a French ship. But I will not recapitulate his virtues or his merit. It was upon the remonstrance of this vice-admiral, whose station in command entitled him, at least, to so much confidence from his superior officer, that the resolution to attack Fort-Fouras by sea was laid aside. Now, then, let me relate to you the reasons which induce me to believe, that notwithstanding this report of vice-admiral Knowles, Fort-Fouras was accessible by sea, though the vice-admiral had not the good fortune to find out the channel.

‘ In the first place, then, though I have by no means that high opinion of the French wisdom and ability which you entertain, and on every occasion extol so highly; yet I do suppose, that in matters of defence, they do conduct themselves on principles similar to those which are adopted by the rest of mankind. I do suppose, for instance, that when they build a fort, it is intended either to defend or offend. Fouras was weak to the land; it stood at the water's edge to guard the channel; it stood even on a bank which ran into the water; and as colonel Wolfe, who seems to be the first officer who thought of reconnoitring it, tells us, Enq. p. 30, it had 24 embrasures to the water-side. What was the use of this fort? Was it to guard a bank of sand over which scarce a Thames wherry could pass? If the Guns of no ship whatever could reach the fort, could the guns of the fort reach any ship? According to Mr. Knowles, there was no channel at all, or it lay out of gunshot of the fort. At two miles distance the vice-admiral's master found but six feet water at high-water; at near three miles distance the bomb-ketch, which drew but eleven feet water, went aground. The

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Coventry frigate did the same farther out than that, and the *Barfleur* at a still greater distance. Now, though after all this delay, and hazard to the ships, that admiral thought fit to sound, and try the depth of the water at a distance from the fort, where no cannon could reach; yet it is astonishing to find not a single proof attempted to be given of the depth of the water near the shore, and within gunshot of the fort. Is it impossible then that the channel, a narrow one, might run in shore? Is it not demonstrable that it did so, both from the circumstance of the thing, and the evidence of those who knew, and had navigated it? What says *Bonneau*, the fisherman, examined by general *Conway*, and others, *Enq.* p. 53, There were four fathom (24 feet) water at half cannon shot from *Fort-Fouras*, a depth sufficient for a 60 gun ship. Now, though the land-officers did not chuse to trust to the intelligence of a fisherman for the state of the fortifications at *Rochfort*, yet it seems to be the best evidence as to the depth of the channel that could have been wished. There was the united testimony of *Thierry* and *Bonneau*, joined to the reason of the thing, that there must be a channel within gunshot of the fort, though the ships missed the entrance of it. I might add, that though the vice-admiral could not conduct a ship to the fort, there were captains in the fleet who it seems offered it: captain *Colby* offered to carry the *Princess Amelia*, *Enq.* p. 30. How then can we unriddle this mystery, for a mystery there certainly is? Perhaps it is easier to guess the solution than to explain it.

In our opinion, the mystery needs no explanation.

The postscript is still more interesting, and therefore shall have a place.

Though I have not in the course of this letter affected a candour more than is common to those who engage in political disputes, yet the reader will think it extraordinary that I have not availed myself of the intelligence lately brought from *Rochelle* and *Rocheport* by the captain of the transport-vessel, who was a prisoner in that country at the time our armament came to that coast. The truth is, I disdained to prejudice the mind of the reader by a testimony of that sort, and I determined that he should judge of the conduct of the generals in this expedition, from the same evidence on which they might be supposed to act. But as his opinion of the generals, and their conduct, is by this time formed, it is a debt due to truth, and to the public to say (what is already well known to most of the merchants of the city of *London*) that at the time our fleet was at the *Isle of Aix*, the whole force which the enemy had on that coast consisted of a battalion of regular troops in the *Isle of Rhe*, another in *Oleron*, a Swiss battalion at *Rochelle*, and one regiment of regulars, and one of militia at *Rocheport*. That the *Prudente*, a French ship of 74 guns, with all her cannon and stores, &c. on board, escaped our fleet, by running up to *Rocheport*, through that very channel which was not deep enough for an English long-boat, and that the consternation on the coast was not to be expressed, it being understood that in the course of a few days, both *Rocheport* and *Rochelle* would necessarily fall into the hands of the English, there being no possibility to reinforce them till the household troops could arrive from *Versailles*.

Art.

- ✓ Art. 30. *The proceedings of a general court-martial, held in the council-chamber at Whitehall, on Wednesday the 14th, and continued by several adjournments to Tuesday the 20th of December 1757, upon the trial of lieutenant-general Sir John Mordaunt, by virtue of his majesty's warrant, bearing date the 3d day of the same month. Published by authority. 8vo. Pr. 1s. 6d. Millar.*

An unprejudiced reader, after having perused the pamphlet mentioned above, and compared it with the evidence specified in these proceedings, will hardly read the decision of the court-martial without emotion. It is a little extraordinary, that Sir J—n M—t should lay such a stress upon the objections to landing, and after all, own that these objections were surmounted; for, surmounted they must have been in the opinion of him and the other members of the council of war, who agreed to land the forces on the night of the 28th of September. Though the disembarkation was prevented by boisterous weather—a man will naturally ask why this service was not performed on the preceding days, when the weather was calm? or, if that was not convenient, why they did not wait until the boisterous weather was abated? When he hears it asserted, that the soldiers were at such a distance from shore, that the first disembarkation could not have been performed in less than six hours, he will be apt to wonder at the allegation, considering the following evidence given by Sir Edward Hawke.

- Q. What time, he imagines, it would have taken up to have
- made the whole landing of the troops?
- A. That at the last council of war, in which it was determined to
- land, he made a proposal to the general officers, in order to save
- time, that, if they approved of it, he would immediately order all
- the transports as close to the shore, as they could possibly go, and
- the frigates within them, at the place where the troops were to land,
- that they might get on shore with the greater expedition: this pro-
- posal was seconded by Mr. Knowles, and by the rest of the sea-
- officers, but was objected to, principally by major-general Conway,
- who urged, that to send the transports in there in the afternoon,
- would point out to the French the place at which they intended to
- land; he does not remember Sir John Mordaunt said any thing on
- the subject, and thence concluded, he agreed in opinion with major-
- general Conway. The deponent explained, that the Frigates were
- meant as a protection to the transports, to preserve them from being
- fired, or receiving any injury. He remarks one other thing, that
- although landing troops in the night is against his own opinion, as
- men are liable to surprise, and many accidents, where they do not
- know the ground, yet he submitted that to the general officers, as
- supposing them much better judges of it than himself, and made
- no objection thereto; but with a view that the greater expedition
- should be made in landing the troops that night, he gave orders to
- the agent of the transports on board his own quarter-deck, and to
- one or two of his own lieutenants, to go on board the transports,
- with a positive direction from him, that at the instant the first body
- of troops was gone from the ships, the transports should get under
- sail immediately, and run close into the shore, where the troops
- were to land, in order that the second body of troops might be
- landed with much greater expedition than the first.

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‘ The foregoing question, viz. ‘ How long, he imagines, “ it would have taken up to have made the whole landing of the “ troops,” ‘ being repeated with this addition, “ at any time, sup-
“ posing all circumstances the most favourable ?”

‘ The admiral said, he cannot answer that question with any sort
‘ of certainty ; they might have landed with great expedition, had
‘ the transports been as near as they could get to the shore.

‘ Q. Would not the flux and reflux of the tide have made an altera-
‘ tion in the time of landing ?

‘ A. It certainly would ; it would not have taken the same time,
‘ had the transports got under sail, and ran close in to shore.

‘ Q. Whether any of the officers made a report to him, that they
‘ had delivered his orders on board the transports, relative to their
‘ getting under sail ?

‘ A. To the best of his remembrance, they did ; the agent of the
‘ transports particularly, as he remembers, told him that he had ;
‘ and he cannot doubt of their having been delivered, as he gave out
‘ those orders in person (which is not usual for the admiral) on pur-
‘ pose to give them more force, and that they might be the more fully
‘ understood.’

It appears from the evidence of several officers of distinction, both in the army and navy, that there was a proper place for landing in Chatelaillon-bay ; and, in our opinion, it does not appear that there was any sufficient reason to fear a dangerous opposition ; for, at the highest computation, the troops seen on the shore, did not exceed, or indeed amount to one thousand men ; and as to what might be concealed behind the sand-hills, it is meer conjecture ; so that the enemy may justly observe, that our generals proceed upon the *evidence of things not seen*, and therefore rank them among the number of the *faithful*.—If those formidable sand-hills were so near the sea as to command the boats that should land at high-water, might not the troops have been disembarked at low-ebb upon the sandy-beach, where they could have formed without being exposed to the shot of the enemy ?—In the expedition to Port l’Orient, the British troops landed in the face of six or seven thousand men that were assembled to oppose them : nay, though they did not amount to half the number of the forces belonging to the last armament, they penetrated ten miles into the country, opened their trenches in form against Port l’Orient, remained several days on the spot, retreated with deliberation, and reembarked without loss.

After the witnesses were examined by the court-martial, the judge-advocate made some pertinent observations on the evidence.

‘ As to the several arguments, which go to the impracticability of
‘ a descent only, he submitted to the consideration of the court, whe-
‘ ther they are not altogether defeated by the subsequent resolution of
‘ the 28th of September, whereby the landing is determined not only
‘ to be practicable, but adviseable, and to be made with all possible
‘ dispatch ; especially as no material intelligence had in the mean
‘ time been gained, which shewed Fort-Fouras to be more assailable
‘ on the land-side, than they had before reason to apprehend.’

‘ The court having duly weighed and considered the whole matter
‘ before them, is unanimously of opinion, that the prisoner lieutenant-
‘ general Sir John Mordaunt is not guilty of the charge exhibited
‘ against him, and doth therefore acquit him. TYRAWLY.

A true copy, CHARLES GOULD, deputy judge advocate general.

Art. 31, *Arimant and Tamira: an Eastern tale. In the manner of Dryden's fables. By a gentleman of Cambridge. 4to. Pr. 1s. M. Cooper.*

We are told in the title-page to this poem, that it is written in the manner of Dryden's fables, and by a gentleman of Cambridge; but as title-pages are now and then apt to tell fibbs, we must beg leave to doubt the truth of both these assertions. In support of this our scepticism, we shall extract the following lines:

' But should I tell how much the lover said
 ' To woo his mistress to the bridal bed:
 ' Should I relate how oft he fondly swore,
 ' That he would live for her, or live no more:
 ' Or how Tamira, melting by degrees,
 ' Thought death more grim, as life began to please:
 ' All this would stretch the limits of my song,
 ' And well I wean my tale's already long.
 ' Suffice it then to say, the prince prevail'd,
 ' That passion conquer'd, that religion fail'd;
 ' That the priest trembling spoke the blessing o'er,
 ' And join'd their hands, whose hearts were join'd before.
 ' Now ev'ning shades had chas'd the sun away,
 ' And silent gloom eclips'd the lamp of day——
 ' Thro' that still gloom the muse nor pours her light,
 ' Nor prys into the myst'ries of the night.
 ' She waits till morn from yonder hill arise
 ' To wake the verdent earth, and chear the skies.
 ' Nor stops she now, to tell the long array
 ' Of priests, and nobles, dark'ning all the way;
 ' What hymns the virgins sung, what tears they shed,
 ' To weep the living princess, as the dead;
 ' But opes the sacred shrine with magic hands,
 ' Where at the altar's foot the destin'd victim stands.
 ' Veil'd in his robe, the monarch turns aside;
 ' Nor knows he yet Tamira is a bride.
 ' The lab'ring Bramin with extatic stare,
 ' His eyes all haggard, and erect his hair.
 ' Lifts o'er the virgin's neck his sacred knife;
 ' Spare her," cries Arimant, " O spare my wife,
 ' Golconda's injur'd gods demand a virgin life."

If any gentleman, after the perusal of the verses above-quoted, can see any resemblance between Dryden and the author of them, we acknowledge ourselves no adepts in similitude of style; and if any other gentleman will ascribe them to a Cambridge pen, we can only be concerned that he should have so mean an opinion of that learned body.